DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 118 231 PS 008 299

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TITLE The Identification of Competencies for Child Development Associates Working with Chicano Children. Final Report.
INSTITUTION Child Development Associate Consortium, Inc., Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Child Development (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE Dec 74
NOTE 149p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$7.35 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS Cognitive Development; Cultural Activities; *Cultural Awareness; Curriculum Research; *Day Care Programs; *Early Childhood Education; Educational Strategies; Measurement Techniques; *Mexican Americans; Minority Group Children; *Performance Based Teacher Education; School Community Programs; Spanish Speaking; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS *Child Development Associates: Chicanos; Culture Based Curricula

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation is to identify necessary cultural, language, and cognitive skills and teaching methods for Child Development Associates (CDAs) working with Chicano children. Recent studies in the area of early childhood education focusing exclusively on the Chicano child are surveyed and abstracted. Charts of CDA skills and suggestions for corresponding classroom learning activities which make use of these skills are provided in the report. Appendices include (1) the description of a cognitive styles approach to determining competencies for teachers and Child Development Associates working with Chicano children, (2) a discussion of culture-based curricula for Chicano children, (3) a brief report on the CDAC Assessment Instrument, (4) the revised (December 1975) Integrated Competency Assessment Scale and Q-Sort Self Assessment Scale, by Max S. Castillo and Ana M. Castillo. (BRT)

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ED118231

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

FINAL REPORT

THE IDENTIFICATION OF CONDITIONS FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE WORKING WITH CHICANO CHILDREN

December, 1974

PS 008299

The Child Development Associate Consortium
[illegible]
Washington, D.C. 20036

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FINAL REPORT

Contract No. FY74 SC 00015

THE IDENTIFICATION OF COMPETENCIES FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATES WORKING WITH CHICANO CHILDREN

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December 1974

PS 008299

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Child Development Associate Consortium. Contractors undertaking such projects under CDA sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent CDA Consortium position or policy.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATE CONSORTIUM

Research & Development

ABSTRACT

The aim of the project was to identify a set of competencies and corresponding behavioral referents for Child Development Associates working with Chicano children. The resulting competencies are intended to supplement and not supplant those competencies to be required of all Child Development Associates.

The CDAC framework was examined as to its adequacy in meeting the special needs of the Chicano child. Three areas were recommended for inclusion in addition to the six general areas that now comprise the framework: culture, language, and cognitive/affective interrelation. The panel of experts were in agreement that it was in these categories that the needs of the Chicano child differed from that of the average CDAC child population.

To insure that the competencies reflect current thinking in the field, the project included a literature search component. Information from relevant articles was used in articulating the competencies. Abstracts of theses, articles and dissertations that bear on the Chicano pre-school child are included. The competency statements were reviewed by a panel of Chicano professionals from throughout the country; the resulting competencies reflect their recommendations.

CDAC CHICANO TASK FORCE

The following panel of Chicano professionals critiqued the document and offered suggestions at various stages in its evolution. We are indebted to each of them for their invaluable assistance in the development of this product.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION. . . . . i-iv

Aim of Project
Developmental Process
Competencies

ABSTRACTS OF CURRENT RESEARCH DOCUMENTS 3-28

COMPETENCIES. 29-42

APPENDICES

A. Ramírez, III Manuel.

"Determining Competencies of Teachers of Mexican-American Children - A Cognitive Styles Approach"

B. González, Jr. Josué M.

"Towards a Clarification of the Nature and Role of Culture-Based Curricula and Cultural Context Teaching in Educational Programs for Chicano Children and the Formulation of Competency Statements for Child Development Personnel"

C. Assessment Report

D. Castillo, Max S. and Castillo, Ana M.

"Integrated Competency Assessment Scale and Q-Sort Self-Assessment Scale."

E. Project Personnel

THE IDENTIFICATION OF COMPETENCIES FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATES WORKING WITH CHICANO CHILDREN

INTRODUCTION

The contract to undertake the current project was awarded to the Center for Applied Linguistics on May 28, 1974. The primary task was to identify a set of competencies and accompanying behavioral referents desirable in Child Development Associates working with Chicano children.

The RFP was a direct reflection of CDAC's concern about the Chicano child and his special needs. In carrying out its difficult and complex mandate, that of identifying teacher competencies which would contribute to quality child care for all children, CDAC has become cognizant that relying on global competencies will not suffice. Certain cultural and linguistic minorities require additional competencies that take into account their cultural and linguistic diversity. The Chicano population is one such group.

This unique population has specific linguistic and cultural attributes that should be taken into account in the specification of competencies for CDA's dealing with this population. Current research on Mexican Americans indicates that special teacher skills and behaviors reflecting the characteristics of these children are of paramount importance in enhancing the self-concept and cognitive development of such children. As presently delineated, CDA competencies do not address themselves to this goal.

THE AIMS OF THE PROJECT

The major goal of the study was to develop a set of competencies desirable in CDA's working with Chicano children and the behavioral referents by means of which the presence or absence of the competencies could be judged.

The initial steps involved a review of previous CDAC-sponsored projects which focused on Chicanos. Particularly relevant were efforts undertaken by the Edgewood Independent School District in San Antonio, Texas (Child Development Associate Competencies Unique for the Worker with Spanish-Speaking Preschool Children, 1973) and by Castillo and Castillo at the University of Houston (CDA Developmental Instruments: An Assessment into Competencies and Skills Needed by CDA's Working With Pre-School Mexican-American Children).

Also subjected to close scrutiny was the framework currently being field tested by CDAC. The concern centered around whether the framework was comprehensive enough to accomodate the specification of additional

competencies unique to personnel working with Chicano children. If the framework were found to be lacking in some respect, it would become necessary to revise it to fit the needs or, in the case of extreme changes, to devise a completely new framework.

To insure that the latest research findings pertaining to preschool Chicanos were available to the researchers, an extensive literature search on the topic was conducted. The results were intended to supplement the research material presented in an earlier CDAC product Bilingual Children; that is, we purposely included only that material not covered in the earlier resource document. Abstracts of the articles, theses, and dissertations reviewed by the research assistants and included on pages 3-28.

A portion of the project concerned itself with evaluation, specifically the evaluation of Chicano-related competencies. The task set forth was that of reviewing the instrument developed by Castillo and Castillo at the University of Houston, and make recommendations on its refinement and use. Two Chicanos familiar with psychometric procedures and with the philosophy and orientation of CDAC were asked to review the instrument and submit a report of their findings. Their report can be found in Appendix C.

As was the case with the CDAC framework, the concern was for the adequacy of the instrument in measuring Chicano specific CDAC competencies. The analysis focused on the following major items: validity, format, comprehensiveness, alternative assessment strategies, and research or empirical basis of assessment strategies.

DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

The literature search was conducted at the University of Texas, Austin and at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Relevant findings were utilized in the specification of the actual competency statements.

The CDAC framework of six general areas considered essential for a person working with young children was examined as to its adequacy in responding to Chicano concerns. The panel of experts suggested that three areas be added to the existing framework: culture, language, and cognition. These three areas, it was felt, would provide the needed dimension for describing and categorizing the additional competencies. The consultants were in general agreement that it was in these areas that Chicano preschool children differed from CDAC's norming population.

The performance areas currently being tested as part of the CDAC framework (planning, organizing, teaching/interacting, evaluation, and knowledge) were considered adequate for specifying the additional competencies.

Several recommendations were made regarding the evaluation of Chicano-related competencies. They include:

1. Extended field testing of the Castillo-Castillo instrument.

2. Development of instrumentation into sets of instruments corresponding to levels of competency or levels of behavior.

3. Establishment of validity of the instrument.

4. Establishment of a cross-reference system in which the competency statements would be cross-referenced with the behavioral objectives found in the training component.

5. A user's manual describing the role of assessment in the certification process, as well as the set of procedures for administration, scoring, and planning of individual skills development strategies.

The full report and a copy of the instrument itself can be found in Appendix C.

THE COMPETENCIES

In accordance with the categories identified by our panel of experts, the competencies that follow are divided into three major groups: culture, language, and cognition. Each competency will be viewed through the five performance areas currently utilized by CDAC. The behavioral referents will reflect those performance areas that are relevant in each case.

Our initial intention was to provide the appropriate behavioral referents for each competency. These efforts soon led us to the conclusion that not all desirable competencies would be readily observable in a classroom setting. Some important skills would have to be measured outside the classroom through means other than direct observation, such as through face-to-face interviews or paper-pencil tests. Even though some of these skills do not lend themselves readily to observation, we felt it necessary to include them in our report for purposes of thoroughness.

Each major competency area is introduced by a brief statement outlining the principal concerns and a summary of the theoretical framework upon which the particular set of competencies was based. The format used for presentation of the competencies consists of two columns, one for the competency statement itself and the other for the behavioral referent(s) indicative of possessing such a competency. Assessment of some of these skills, though a concern, is beyond the scope of the current project.

One final point needs to be clarified. Although our purpose was to identify <u>additional</u> specific competencies relevant to providing quality child care for Chicano children, it is our view and desire that these new competencies should be considered an integral part of the certification procedure for CDA's serving Chicano children. It is our hope that

the current effort can serve as a base for certification and not as a set of optional "frills" that are looked upon as "nice to have" but not important enough to serve as requirements.

It should be further emphasized that this project is viewed not as a termination point, but as the initial step in a three-stage process of identification, validation, and implementation of competencies for Child Development Associates working with Chicano children. It is strongly recommended that CDAC proceed with the remaining two stages of development in order that quality child care for Chicano children can move closer toward becoming a reality.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION TO THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This project is a continuation of a previous Childhood Development Associate (C.D.A.) sponsored resource document entitled Bilingual Children.

The purpose of the present survey of literature was to identify the more recent studies in the area of early childhood education focusing exclusively on the Chicano child. Inasmuch as the consultants agreed on three major areas of difference between the Chicano child and the C.D.A. sample, the entries were categorized into three major topics: culture, language and cognition. A fourth category became necessary to include miscellaneous findings which the research staff considered to be of value to the C.D.A. working with Chicano preschool children.

The spectrum of research indicates that there is an upsurge of interest in identifying the unique educational needs of the Chicano child. The necessity to define and examine the socio-economic, the linguistic and the cultural factors and their impact on the educational needs of the Chicano preschool child, has become apparent. Moreover, the trend to evaluate the efficacy of early childhood programs in meeting the needs of the Chicano child utilizing valid methods and criteria, has also developed.

In spite of these encouraging signs in research, we were able to identify specific areas which raise serious questions as to the validity of the data gathered. Limitations in the research design of many studies, especially in the sampling procedures, instrumentation and terminology, proved to be most disconcerting. In many instances, the samples were too limited to allow for extensive generalization and application of the data to the Chicano child. There was noted a lack of precise identification of the population from which samples were taken and the process used for the selection of samples. A majority of the studies posed serious questions in identifying and utilizing instruments which take into account the cultural and linguistic differences unique to the Chicano child. Finally, there was observed a lack of consistency in the terminology employed by the various investigators. Key concepts and constructs utilized in the studies such as: self-concept, personality, socialization, acculturation, language development, were not clearly defined.

The criteria for selection of the entries were based on the following:

1. The entries would not duplicate the material in the C.D.A. resource document Bilingual Children.

2. The entries would focus on the Chicano child ages 3 to 5 years.

3. The entries would reflect the most recent investigations in this area.

It was considered necessary to include unpublished master's theses and doctoral dissertations in the review of the literature in order to inform the C.S.A. working with Chicano children, of current research which might serve (1) as a source of information and (2) as a basis for further investigation.

The sources utilized in the formation of this bibliography included the following:

Dissertation Abstracts International.

A. M. Padilla and P. Aranda (Eds.). Latino mental health: Bibliography and abstracts. Rockville, Maryland: Alcohol, Drug Abuse, and Mental Health Administration, 1974.

E.R.I.C. abstracts.

Abstracts from periodicals and journals.

Abstracts compiled from Research Assistants from the University of Texas at Austin.

Abstracts compiled from the Research Assistants at the University of California, Santa Barbara.

CULTURE

Barrios, Ruth. Nutrition education in Sacramento County for the American of Mexican descent. Aztlán, 1970, 1(2), n.p.

This article is a critique of the nutrition education programs for Americans of Mexican descent in Sacramento County. Also discussed is an evaluation of the nutritional value of traditional Mexican foods and a proposal for the design of a nutrition education program for children of Mexican descent in Sacramento County, California.

The author concludes that to mistakenly convince Mexican Americans to question their traditional foods is not only destructive culturally and psychologically to the individual Mexican American, but also damaging to the community health and vigor.

Hill, Floyd Williams. A study of the influence of socialization anxiety on the achievement of first-grade Mexican-American children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1969.

Purpose: To explore whether socialization anxiety as a motivational system in young children can be measured with a standard measuring instrument. Also considered is whether there is a significant difference in the degree of socialization anxiety in Mexican-American (M-A) and Anglo-American (A-A) children and whether this correlated with academic success and high achievement.

Subjects: 160 first graders in Rio Hondo, Texas.

Instruments: The Picture Game (Bower and Lambert, 1961) also known as the Self Rating of Behavior (SRB). Author cites problems with using this as a measure of socialization anxiety. Also compared were language ability, visual perception, auditory perception, visual-motor functioning, behavior, school attendance and school achievement.

Results: Significant differences found between A-A and M-A children on language ability, visual and auditory perception, behavior, school attendance and school achievement. No significant differences in visual-motor functioning and socialization anxiety. No one variable emerged as a predictor of academic achievement in all groups, and socialization anxiety in particular was not a predictor of achievement or academic success in all groups.

Author concludes that results tend to cast doubt on whether socialization anxiety was actually measured by the SRB since scores did

not differ significantly between groups and failed to covary significantly with other variables.

One group however did demonstrate a significant correlation between the SRB scores and 15 other variables. The author thus concludes that for this group, first-year regular-class M-A children, the SRB was a test of socialization anxiety.

Kagan, Spencer, and Madsen, Millard C. Cooperation and competition of Mexican, Mexican-American and Anglo-American children of two ages under four instructional sets. Developmental Psychology, 1971, 5(1), 32-39.

An attempt to assess the degree to which children of two ages and three subcultures differ in amount of cooperative and competitive behavior is examined. A game measuring cooperation and competition was played with pairs of 4-to 5-year old Anglo Americans (AA) and Mexican Americans (MA) and with 7-to 9-year-old AA's, MA's, and Mexicans (M). Cooperative play allowed both pair members to receive awards; competitive play was irrational, allowing no subject to reach his goal. The number of moves that pairs took to reach a goal indicates that 4-to 5-year-olds are more cooperative than the older subjects ($p<.001$). Among the 7-to 9-year-old children, M's are most cooperative, MA's the next most, and AA's the least cooperative ($p<.001$). Among the older children, instructional sets designed to create an "I" orientation increased competition, whereas, sets stressing a "we" orientation increased cooperation ($p<.001$). While qualitative differences between patterns of play are noted for the cultural and age group, sex differences are not found. (Padilla & Aranda 208 p. 113)

Kagan, S. and Madsen, M.C. Rivalry in Anglo-American and Mexican children of two ages. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1972, 24, 214-220.

The subjects were Mexican children from a small, rural town, Nuevo San Vicente, Baja, California. Anglo-American city children enrolled in day care centers for families of low SES in Los Angeles, California. Forty-eight subjects were selected from each culture: 6 boy pairs and 6 girl pairs at ages 5-6, 8-10.

Rivalry, behavior intended to lower the outcomes of a peer, was measured by four choice conditions presented to Anglo-American and Mexican children of ages 5-6 and 8-10. Older Children were significantly more rivalrous than younger children ($p<.001$); Anglo-American children were significantly more rivalrous than Mexican children ($p<.001$); and the cultural difference tended to increase with age. The effect of conditions was significant ($p<.001$), indicating that for all groups rivalry was greatest when accompanied by both relative and absolute gains. The opportunity to avoid a small relative loss increased rivalry more than opportunity to accrue a small absolute gain. The development with age of greater rivalry in boys than girls was present for the Anglo-American but not Mexican children.

Nelson, Linden L. and Kagan, Spencer. Competition: The star-spangeled scramble. Psychology Today, 1972, 6(4), 53-54, 56, 90-91.

The cooperative-competitive behavior of Anglo-American (AA), Mexican-American (MA) and Mexican (M) school children ages 4, 5, 7, 9 and 10 is examined by five variations of the cooperation-board game. On a task to measure inhibition of competitiveness in social interaction among M and AA subjects, M children are found to avoid conflict more than AAs. It appears that AAs engage in conflict that is not only irrationally competitive, but almost sadistically rivalrous. AA children are more willing to reduce their own rewards in order to reduce the rewards of their peers. M children on the other hand, are more likely to engage in co-operative behavior where equal rewards are earned by both players of the game. MA children seem to be caught between the styles of behavior of AA and M children. These findings reveal differences in cooperation-competition between AA and M rural children which appear to result more from differences in competitiveness than from differences in motivation or ability to cooperate. Different childrearing patterns are suggested as being responsible for the differences in cooperation-competition behavior of AA and M. Research on childrearing indicates that rural M mothers tend to reinforce their children noncontingently, rewarding them whether they succeed or fail, whereas AA mothers tend to reinforce their children as a rigid function of the child's achievement. (Padilla & Aranda 328 p. 179)

Neves, Harriet and Bustamante, Marta. Nutritional value and learning opportunities con la comida Mexicana. In Rafael Chavez (Ed.), National Conference Early Childhood Education and the Chicanito. (Pima Community College, Tucson, Arizona, August 3, 4, and 5, 1972). Washington: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Child Development, 1972. (pp. 43-46).

In this report, the authors tell how they teach their children about food and life. Included are excerpts from Lydia Hernandez' nutrition education report. Different Mexican-American dishes are listed with the contents of each and the nutritional value. For example:

Cocido

Beef shank - high in proteins and calcium
Carrots - vitamins B1, B2, C, calcium and iron
Onions - B1, B2, calcium and iron
Cabbage - B1, B2, C, calcium and iron
Turnips - B1, B2, C, calcium and iron
Celery - a complete food

Corn goes well with this soup which is highly nutritious and very economical. (p.44).

Rice, Audrey S., Ruiz, Rene A., Padilla, A. M. Person perception, self-identity, and ethnic group preference in Anglo, Black and Chicano preschool and third grade children. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1974, 5, 100-108.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the ethnic and racial awareness, self-identification and ethnic group preference in Anglo, Black and Chicano preschool and third grade children.

The subjects were 140 lower SES preschool children (4-5 year olds) enrolled in a Head Start program in Kansas City, Mo. and 3rd grade children (9-11 year olds) enrolled in the same school. The ethnic breakdown of preschool children was: 25 Anglo, 24 Black and 23 Chicano. The ethnic breakdown of 3rd grade children was: 14 Anglo, 15 Black and 39 Chicano. Seventy-four subjects were male, 76 were female.

All children were simultaneously shown 4x5 color photographs of young male adults from the three ethnic groups of the subjects. The following descriptive phrases were read aloud and the subject points to one of the three pictures after each phrase.

1. Show me the one who looks like a white man.
2. Show me the one who looks like a Black man.
3. Show me the one who looks like a Chicano.

These statements elicit responses which focus on ethnic group differences.

4. Show me the one who looks most like you.

This statement elicits responses which focus on self identification.

5. Show me the one you like the most.
6. Show me the one that is the nicest color.
7. Show me the one you would like for a big brother.
8. Show me the one you would like to grow up to be like.

These statements elicit responses which focus on preferences.

The results were the following:

1. Children are able to differentiate between the photographs of Anglo and Black male; Anglo and Chicano distinction was difficult for the 4 or 5 year olds. Experimenters suggest that perhaps the term Chicano not readily understood. Third grade children had a high degree of success in distinguishing the three photographs, suggesting that school experiences perhaps are a variable that facilitate the child's ability to discriminate racially and ethnically and increases his awareness of his own skin color as belonging to a particular group.

2. Chicano preschool children indicated no preference for ethnic group, which suggests to authors that attitudes of preference not yet formed. However a significant number of these subjects were not able to discriminate between Anglo and Chicano photographs.

3. Black preschool subjects chose the Anglo photo in response to statement #8 and Black photo in response to statement #7.

This finding indicated to experimenters the lack of self esteem and racial pride was evident in Black preschool subjects.

4. Chicano subjects preference for own ethnic group suggests that aspects of home environment fosters a strong sense of self esteem and ethnic group pride which manifests itself when they are old enough to be aware of ethnic differences.

5. The preference for Chicano photo by 3rd grade Anglo subjects in response to statement 5, 6 and 7 is open to speculation according to authors. Perhaps the Chicano child with increase in age develops an ethnic base for classifying others; the Anglo child with increase age tends to classify others based less on ethnicity and more on physical attributes.

Robles de Suárez, Cecilia Cota. Skin color as a factor of racial identification and preference of young Chicano children. Aztlan, 1971, 2. n.p.

The study proposes to investigate the responses to racial awareness and attitudes of the Chicano child, ages four to five. The two hypotheses are the following:

1. Chicano children in a Head Start class are aware of their skin color. When given a line drawing of a child's face and asked to color this drawing the color of their skin, they will color the drawing the color of their skin.

2. Chicano children in a Head Start class will not prefer their skin color. When asked to make a choice of friends and playmates through a series of colored drawings, they will choose for friends and playmates the children with dark skin. When given a line drawing of a child's face and asked to color the drawing their preference of skin color, they will color the line drawing white or pink.

Sample: Subjects were 28 children in two Head Start classes (N=12, 16) one in Torrance, California and one in Los Angeles.

Results: In response to the question, "Which boy (or girl) would you like to be your friend?", Class A (Torrance) showed only a 33.3% in favor of the Chicano bond while Class B showed a 37.5% in favor of the Chicano bond.

In response to the question "Which boy (or girl) would you invite to play with you at home?" 58% of Class A and 62% of Class B did not choose the Chicano bond.

In response to color preference for the drawings in the Coloring Test 70% of the Chicano children in Class A and Class B did not choose brown as color preference. Fifty percent of Class A and 43% of Class B chose bizarre colors as skin color preference.

Conclusions: The children tested in this study were aware of their skin color, supporting the conclusion that children develop racial awareness at an early age (Clark and Clark, 1939, 1940).

Recommendations: Racial symbols which degrade the Chicano should be eliminated from the classroom. The culture of the Chicano should be a part of every day class activity. The home experience of the Chicano should be emphasized in the classroom, and the parents should be the model and parent figures for the Chicano children. The self-image of the Chicano should be enhanced by respect for the Chicano language and culture.

Versteeg, Arlen and Hall, Robert. Level of aspiration, achievement, and sociocultural differences of preschool children. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1971,119(1), 137-142.

An investigation of the levels of aspiration, achievement, and sociocultural differences in preschool children is presented. Fourteen 5-year-olds, five boys and nine girls, were divided into two groups of seven, one Mexican American (MA), and the other Anglo-American (AA). The Lewinian concept of level of aspiration as derived from Atkinson's motivational theory formed the basis for this study. Essentially, the theory predicts that high n-Achievers are less likely to alter their level of aspiration than are low n-Achievers. The materials used for the experiment consisted of a glass container 25 cm. in diameter and 10 pennies which were used as tossing objects. The S was asked to give an estimate of the number he thought he would get in the container. The estimate was termed as the S's level of aspiration (LA) and the actual number thrown into the container was referred to as the achievement level (AL). Data reveal that the difference with regard to sociocultural background is highly significant. The MA group is more adept at setting realistic goals with regard to the risk taking in this situation. Both the MA and AA groups are significantly higher in LA as compared to AL. The MAs' AL is considerably nearer to their LA. The AA group is much less adept at setting realistic goals in this risk taking situation. The general assertion that there are significant motivational and behavior differences in differing sociocultural backgrounds is supported. (Padilla & Aranda 471 p. 256)

Wasserman, Susan A. Values of Mexican-American, Negro and Anglo blue-collar and white-collar children. Child Development, 1971, 42(5), 1625-1628.

The relationship between 4-year-old children's expressed humanitarian and success value preferences and their related ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and sex is investigated. A sample of 180 children included an equal number of Mexican-American (MA), Negro (N), and Anglo (A) children from blue and white collar backgrounds. The humanitarian values examined are helpfulness, cooperation, concern for others, and sharing; the success values are competition, status, expertise seeking, and completion of task. The instruments, 16 pictures, depicted value conflict situation with eight values illustrated by two situations each. Findings indicate that the scores of A children are higher than those of MA and N children.

For the humanitarian value complex the differences are significant for the comparison of A with N children and not for MA children when compared either with A or N children. For the success value complex, however, significant differences are found between scores of A and MA, and between A and N children. Children of different ethnic groups may have internalized certain success and humanitarian values in differing degrees. Four-year-old A children appear to have internalized success values to a greater degree prior to their entrance into kindergarten or first grade. These values may be particularly significant to a child's success in the occupational hierarchy of society. It is suggested that minority children experience value conflict in school. (Padilla & Aranda 473 p. 257)

Werner, Norma E. and Evans, Idella M. Perception of prejudice in Mexican-American preschool children. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 1968, 27(3), 1039-1046.

Structured doll play interviews were conducted to explore the American children aged 4 to 5 years old. The intention was to determine whether discrimination and evaluation occur simultaneously and whether they are functions of the child's age and sex, or of exposure to group participation outside the home. It was found that the children tend to group the dolls by sex and size before grouping them by skin color. Evaluation on the basis of skin color occurs at the same time the discrimination is made, "good" dolls being white and "bad" dolls dark. After exposure to school the doll with which the child identified was white. There is a tendency for boys to perceive the white adult male doll as larger than the dark one of the same size. Major dimensions of good and bad parents and good and bad children are inferred from the children's descriptions of their behavior. Results are related to comparable studies with regard to Negro and Oriental children with a discussion on their similarities and differences. (Padilla & Aranda 479 p. 260)

LANGUAGE

Barclay, Lisa Frances Kurcz. The comparative efficacies of Spanish, English and bilingual cognitive verbal instruction with Mexican-American Head Start children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1969. (D.A.I., 30 [Jan./Feb.], 3311-A, 1970).

Experimental language and concept formation training program. New Haven Unified School District, Union City, California. The subjects were 67 children randomly assigned to 6 experimental treatment groups. Two control groups were taught by two special teachers. The subjects were pretested utilizing the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test; post tested in Summer, 1967 and follow-up testing in Spring, 1968, utilizing the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, two subtests of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, three subtests of the Vance Language Skills Test, the Templin-Darley Test of Articulation and three tests devised by the experimenter.

The purpose of the study was (1) to determine if a structural cognitive concept formation approach with linguistic training methods for non-native English speaker might have more lasting results; and (2) to determine if the use of English, Spanish or both as a language of instruction would result in the greatest language gain.

Hypothesis tested were:

1. The use of structured language training program, based upon both psychological and linguistic foundation, for two short time periods daily during a seven-week Head Start program will result in greater language development as measured by appropriate tests than will the use of music and art activities for commensurate time periods with bilingual and Spanish-speaking Mexican-American Head Start children.

2. A bilingual presentation of the above language training program will result in greater language development in English than either a Spanish or English presentation alone.

Ten linguistic and six conceptual objectives were developed and a curriculum based upon these was written for the three different language modes. All native English speakers were removed.

The results showed that even in a structured language and cognitive training program during a summer Head Start experience, disadvantaged bilingual and Spanish-speaking children did not learn more, as measured on standardized tests, than did peers exposed to a control treatment of music and art activities.

Brisk, Maria Estela. The Spanish syntax of the preschool Spanish American: the case of New Mexican five-year old children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New Mexico, 1972. (DIA, 34A, July, 1973, 297A).

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of development of the Spanish syntax of a rural and an urban group of 5-year old Spanish-American children from New Mexico.

The evaluation of the study focused on surface syntactic analysis, interference, dialectal and developmental features of children's speech.

The results were: comparing the syntax of the rural and urban group, and of these New Mexican children with a group of Texas children, the level of development of the syntax of Spanish-American children differs with the various groups.

Brisk, Maria Estela. New Mexican syntax of the five year old. In Garland D. Bills (Ed.), Southwest Areal Linguistics. San Diego: Institute for Cultural Pluralism, 1974.

The purpose of this study (adapted from Brisk, 1972) is to describe the Spanish language as spoken by two groups of Spanish-speaking children (pre 1st grade, approx. age 5) from Northern New Mexico, to assess the degree of syntactic development. The children were selected from Albuquerque (New Mexico's largest city) and Chilili (a small rural and isolated community).

Free elicitation and controlled elicitation techniques were utilized to collect data. In the analysis of the data three aspects were considered in assessing the children's syntax: the state of development, the interference from English and the dialectal characteristics.

The results indicated that there was no marked differences between the urban and rural speakers in the analysis of interference and dialectal characteristics. Dialectal syntactic features were common to both groups. However, a noticeable difference was found in the degree of syntactic development. Rural children had established a greater proportion of structures than urban children (66% frequently used structures as opposed to 47%). Rural children had acquired a greater number of structures than the urban children (90 as opposed to 74). (p. 236).

The following types of sentences were found in the speech of both groups:

1. A sentence with a copula (verbs ser and estar).
2. A sentence with a true verb (transitive, intransitive, reflexive, impersonal and subjectless).
3. A sentence in which the copula or the verb have been deleted - with or without the rest of the verb phrase. (p. 237).

Rural children's speech indicated a preference for type 2 (68% as opposed to 35%). Urban children's speech indicated a preference for

type 3 (36% as opposed to 12%) which substantiates that their syntactic patterns reflect a predominance of labeling structures.

The author concludes that the syntax of these Spanish-speaking children is not fully developed at pre 1st grade age. The level of development differs among the rural and urban groups, suggesting that the function of Spanish in the home and in the area has an important effect on the development of syntax.

Card, Judy Ann Lee. A study of some oral language test instrument variables concerning Mexican American bilingual children. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Texas at Austin, 1970.

Purpose: to provide an accurate description of the phonological performance and fluency of a group of Mexican American children in both Spanish and English. The study specifically sought to:

1. Obtain samples of speech (by means of test and retest) from each of 63 first grade MA students in order to determine phonological proficiency and fluency for each child.

2. Determine if there is a difference in a child's age of specific phonemes while mimicking and in free speech.

3. Critically analyze the test instrument (English phonology, Spanish phonology and fluency sections of the Gloria and David Instruction Series).

4. Determine if the different sequencing of test items results in a difference in a child's performance on the test.

Hypotheses were tested using analysis of variance, covariance and intercorrelation analysis.

Conclusions: (Author notes that any findings or conclusions derived from the data collected should be applied only to the sample tested).

1. No significant improvement in English phonology from test 1 to test 2.

2. Significant improvement in Spanish phonology from test 1 to test 2.

3. High degree of correlation between Spanish phonology scores and Spanish fluency scores for test 1, and a high degree of correlation between English and Spanish phonology scores for test 1 and test 2.

4. Definite improvement in phonology scores for most students in both bilingual instruction and control groups between test 1 and test 2.

5. Students who did well in Spanish phonology on test 1, also did well in Spanish fluency. English phonology did not correlate

significantly with English fluency on either test, and Spanish phonology did not significantly correlate with Spanish fluency on test 2.

Recommendations: Need for a more complete and normed test for assessing oral language proficiency.

Carr, Dorothe Joan. The role of games in teaching standard Spanish as a second dialect: Phonology. Unpublished master's report, University of Texas at Austin, 1974.

Purpose: To present a rationale for using verbal games to help teach standard Spanish as a second dialect to Chicano children, and to list a number of games and activities which may be used for this purpose.

The author cites the importance of the use of verbal games in language instruction. She discusses "keys" to successful usage of games. The author groups verbal games which focus on specific phonological differences between Chicano Spanish and standard Spanish and verbal games which focus on general phonological differences.

Cornejo, Ricardo Jesús. Bilingualism: study of the lexicon of five-year-old Spanish-speaking children of Texas. (Unpusblished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1969). Dissertation Abstracts International, 30(2), 1544-A, 1972.

The aim of this study was to collect an initial corpus of recorded material representing the speech of children, in order to gather information concerning the lexicon of these children before they enter first grade.

The preliminary analysis of the findings showed some linguistic patterns which were unexpected. One of them was the high frequency of "baby talk" in the speech of children who are about to enter school. The second important finding was that English is already the predominant language at that age. This was demonstrated in the high degree of lexical, phonological and syntactic interferences from English to Spanish whereas interferences from Spanish to English were highly significant at the phonological level, but minor at the lexical and syntactic levels. This language situation should be studied in detail, especially because of its implications in the preparation of teaching materials for bilingual education programs.

Evans, Phyllis Joyce Howell. Word-Pair discrimination and imitation abilities of preschool economically-disadvantaged native-Spanish speaking children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1971.

The purpose of the study was to determine among native-Spanish speakers (1) whether significant differences existed between word pair discrimination and imitation in English and Spanish, (2) whether significant differences existed between languages (English-

Spanish) on tasks, (3) to compare the proficiency of native-English speakers on the same measures and (4) to provide descriptive information on the types of errors.

The subjects were 40 preschool children: 20 native-Spanish-speakers (mean C.A.-68.1 mos.) and 20 native-English-speakers (mean C.A.-68.2 mos.).

Four tasks were provided using 20 word pairs and 50 single words in each language. The tasks were:

Spanish word-pair discrimination (S-WP)
Spanish word imitation (S-1W)
English word-pair discrimination (E-WP)
English word imitation (E-1W)

The analysis indicated that there is no significant differences between the two groups on the four tasks.

The results were:

1. Spanish speakers more proficient in their orative language than were the English-speakers.

2. Although interference may create some problems for preschool Spanish-speakers in imitating English words, many of these errors are also age related.

Freiheit, Beryle Rae. Effectiveness of a daily auditory training program for Spanish-speaking children learning English. (Doctoral dissertation United States International University, 1971) Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 31A(12), No. 6399-A.

The purpose of this study was (1) to evaluate the possible effectiveness of a daily classroom program in auditory training of the speech sounds of English which the Spanish-speaking child has great difficulty hearing and imitating and consequently reading; and (2) to develop examples of instructional auditory training materials and techniques for presenting those sounds.

An experiment was conducted with children from a self-contained ESL classroom consisting of an ear-training program which stimulated some basic sounds of English to determine the effectiveness of such a daily program on their articulation of English.

Statistical comparisons indicated that the experimental males and females revealed significant decreases in articulation errors from the pre-through the post-measure. On the other hand, males and females comprising the control group revealed significant increases in the number of errors made from the pre- to the post-measure. This would suggest that "sound" errors, if not corrected, tend to compound themselves.

Primary recommendation of author is the inclusion of daily auditory training program for stimulation and discrimination of the "sounds

of English".

Gonzalez, Gustavo. The acquisition of questions in Texas Spanish. In Garland D. Bills (Ed.), Southwest Areal Linguistics. San Diego: Institute for Cultural Pluralism, 1974.

The purpose of the research was the study of interrogatives and their development in the speech of middle-class native Spanish-speaking children ages 2-5 years from the Lower Rio Grande Valley, Texas. Several informants were selected at each age level thus establishing an "apparent time" basis for the study. Two males and two females were interviewed from each of the following age intervals: 2.0, 2.6, 2.9, 3.0, 3.3, 3.6, 4.0, 4.6, 5.0, 5.6, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0 and 10.0.

The results presented are based on the analysis of four informants interviewed at each age level between two and five years.

1. The order of acquisition of questions in Spanish appeared to be the following:

   a. Yes/no questions.
   b. Information questions.
   c. Tag questions with verdad.

2. The basic interrogative formations in subjects peak at 3.3 years. The basic types of questions remain constant. However, questions tend to become more complex with age.

3. The need for further research on a real-time basis is required especially in the age span of 2.0 and 2.6 in which was observed the greatest growth. And, further research in comparing the acquisition of Spanish by Chicano children with the acquisition of Spanish by children in other Spanish-speaking countries (Mexico, for example).

Gonzalez, Gustavo. The acquisition of Spanish grammar by native Spanish speakers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1970. Dissertation Abstracts International, 31A(11), 6033-A.

This investigation focuses on the acquisition of Spanish grammar by middle-class Mexican American children in the Rio Grande Valley of Texas. The speech of three children at the following age levels (given in years and months) was recorded, transcribed and analyzed: 2.0, 2.6, 2.9, 3.0, 3.3, 3.6, 4.0, 4.6 and 5.0. Significant syntactic patterns are reported for each level, as is their relative frequency of occurrence. Other grammatical areas examined include verb tenses, negation, interrogatives, possessives, imperatives, adverbial modification and sentence complexity. Grammatical deviations encountered at each age level are reported. A chapter summarizing the findings is included.

The data revealed the following growth in number of distinct syntactic structures: from thirteen at age 2.0 to twenty-one at age

2.6, increasing to thirty at 2.9. By age 3.0, the number has grown to thirty-three. The increase at subsequent age levels is small, the total number of distinct structures reaching a peak of thirty-eight at 4.6.

The tenses for expressing present, past and future seem established at 2.6. The perfect tenses are last to appear. Negation through no is established at 2.6 and expands to other negatives at a later time. Adverbial modification is first manifested through single word locative adverbs; these followed by single word temporal adverbs. Adverb clauses develop next and follow the same sequence as the simple adverbs. Sentences progress from simple to complex to compound, and finally to compound-complex. The acquisition of new patterns or processes does not seem to depend on mastery of previous patterns or processes.

Gonzalez, J. L. The effects of maternal stimulation on early language development of Mexican-American children. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New Mexico, 1972) Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 33A(7), No. 3436A.

The purpose of this study was to determine the nature and extent of language stimulation provided at home by mothers of four preschool age, disadvantaged Mexican-American children. A secondary purpose of the study was to determine whether mothers of this sample of children could use verbal expansions to stimulate their children's language development. Specifically, the study attempted to obtain information relative to the following questions:

1. Is language retardation evident at an early age?

2. Do mothers provide verbal feedback for their children's verbal utterances?

3. Does a mother's attitudes toward child rearing influence the nature of verbal stimulation provided to the child?

4. How frequently do mothers utilize feedback in the form of verbal expressions?

5. Can mothers, familiarized with the process of expansions utilize the training to stimulate their children's language development as evidenced by an increase in maternal expansions after training?

6. Do children whose mothers utilize expansion a high percentage of the time demonstrate more language growth than children who receive little feedback in the form of expansion?

Six children ranging in age from 23 to 32 months, were assigned to one of three treatment groups. Four of the children were from impoverished environments and were randomly assigned to either an experimental or control male-female group. Two children were from middle-class environments and comprised the comparison group. One welfare group's (expansion) parents received training in the process of expanding their children's utterances. Another welfare

group's (control) parents received no training. The third group (comparison) received no special treatment.

Instruments: ITPA, PPVT and two language evaluation scales. Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), used to determine the attitudes of the mothers towards child rearing.

Results: Appears that language retardation as evidenced by depressed mean length of response and children's protocols can be detected as early as two years of age.

The results were unclear in regards to the second question. The four welfare mothers did respond to their children's utterances, however, the differentiating factor appeared to be the length of the mother's response.

The answer to the third question was not obtained in the present study. This was due to problems of interpretation of the mother's responses to the PARI.

The four welfare mothers used verbal expansions an average of 13% of the time during the baseline period. The average expansion rate for the entire twelve weeks was 14%.

The two mothers in the Expansion group maintained higher expansion rates throughout the study when compared to the Control mothers. However, the two Expansion mothers had a slightly higher expansion rate during the baseline period. The effects of treatment were unclear because of the fluctuating rate of expanded speech among the mothers throughout the study. Further, it was not clear whether mothers who utilize expansion a high percentage of the time have children who demonstrate more language growth than children who receive little feedback of this nature.

Heras, Ivonne and Nelson, Keith E. Retention of semantic, syntactic, and language information by young bilingual children. Psychonomic Science, 1972, 29(6B), 391-393.

Twenty bilingual 5-year-olds were read stories in English and Spanish. Using variants of the second sentence in each story, recognition memory was tested for semantic and syntactic information. The children were also asked to identify the language of the third sentence in each study. The data indicate that the children successfully coded and remembered sentences in terms of meaning but rapidly forgot details of syntactic form. Coding by language (Spanish or English) for the third sentence was forgotten if followed by material in the alternate language. (Padilla & Aranda 182 p. 98)

Mycue, E. Testing in Spanish and the subsequent measurement of English fluency. Texas: Texas Women's University, 1968 [Eric Ed 026 193].

The Language Facility Test was administered to 48 preschool children in Head Start classes in Fort Worth, Texas, to determine (1) if the spontaneous production of English speech would be better after the bilingual children were first allowed to perform in Spanish, and

(2) if the English language performance of the Mexican-American bilingual children would be better when tested by a Mexican-American examiner, rather than an Anglo-American examiner. Results of the study showed that (1) pupils performed better with a Mexican-American examiner and (2) children performed better in English after initial performance in a similar task in Spanish. Recommendations were that: (1) bilingual education be made mandatory, (2) new material on bilingual education be made available, (3) English be taught as a second language to bilingual children, (4) teachers be fluent in both languages, and (5) under-achieving Spanish speaking children be tested in Spanish as well as in English to determine more accurately their potential and specific needs. A survey of related studies is included.

Nedler, Shari and Sebera, Peggy. Intervention strategies for Spanish-speaking preschool children. Child Development, 1971, 42(1), 259-267.

A comparison of three strategies of early intervention designed to increase the language and communication skills of disadvantaged 3-year-old Mexican-American children is made. Treatment group I included 16 children in a planned Bilingual Early Childhood Educational Program. Group II included 16 children who were indirectly involved in a Parental Involvement Program. Group III was composed of 14 children in a traditional day-care center. Before and after a 9-month intervention period, all subjects were tested with the Leiter International Performance Scale and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test in English and Spanish. On all measures, Group I made significantly greater gains than the other two groups, indicating the greater effectiveness of the planned Bilingual Early Childhood Education Program. Lesson activities for Group I have been designed to provide experiences promoting the use of language to abstract information. Beginning with the development of cognitively directed perceptions, the skills needed for making observations meaningful in analyzing the surrounding "world" are programmed into lessons through careful, delineated questions. Expansion of this ability to handle the coding process forms the base for the development of abstract thinking skills. (Padilla & Aranda 327 pp. 178-179)

Steiner, Violette G. and Zimmerman. Assessing bilingual language ability in the Mexican-American preschool child. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Western Psychological Association (Portland, Oregon, April 26-29, 1972. [Eric Ed 073 831].

The current emphasis on "teaching in the language of the child" has led to a demand for bilingual programs in Mexican-American communities. Ninety preschool children, assumed to be Spanish speaking, were referred to a summer program for amelioration of English language deficiency. Spanish and English versions of the Preschool Language Scale were administered to determine language dominance, developmental status, and areas of deficiency. Results indicate that prime consideration should be given to the assessment of the preschool child's language status before assuming competency or dominance in any language or deciding to establish a bilingual program.

COGNITION

Bernal, E. M., Jr. Concept learning among Anglo, Black, and Mexican-American children using facilitation strategies and bilingual techniques. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1971) Ann Arbor, Mn: University Microfilms, 1972, No. 72-15.

This study analyzes the results of tests administered to Black, Anglo-American and Chicano students under two different conditions, "standard" and "facilitation". Under the first condition, the minority students scored significantly lower than the Anglo-American students on tests of conceptual attainment. Under facilitation, however, the significance disappeared because of the enhanced scores of the Chicanos and Blacks. Possible interpretations are suggested, including the possibility that tests are biased, in terms of content and in mode of presentation.

Bernal, Ernest M. Comparative concept learning among Anglo, Black and Mexican-American children under standard and facilitation condition of task administration. Paper presented at the Symposium of the Effects of Cultural Variables on the Mexican-American at the meetings of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 1971.

The effects of a standard task administration versus a complex facilitation strategy on the concept learning (CL) of monolingual, English-speaking Mexicans (MAI), bilingual Mexican Americans (MAII) Anglo-Americans (AA), and black Americans (BA) are compared. The three hypotheses generated are: (1) facilitation strategies will have little effect for AA's in their performance under standard CL test conditions; (2) ethnic minorities will score higher on CL tasks with facilitation strategies than with the standard CL administration; (3) under equal facilitative conditions, the AA group will not perform significantly better on CL tasks than do the BA, MAI, or MAII students. One hundred and ninety-two subjects were administered the modified version of the Letter Sets Test and the Number Series Tests. The results show that the hypotheses are supported; that is, statistical significance is obtained in the direction predicted. The AA group is not affected by the intervention technique, whereas the ethnic groups show significant difference in the predicted direction. Moreover, with the facilitation technique the ethnic minority groups perform as well as the AA's. It is concluded that, contrary to the hereditarian position, ethnically appropriate environmental intervention can effectively eliminate the significant CL-performance differences across ethnic populations. (Padilla & Aranda 032, pp. 16-17)

Cornett, Joe D., Ainsworth, Len and Askins, Bill. Effect of an intervention program on "high risk" Spanish American children. Journal of Educational Research, 1974, 67(8), 342-343.

Mental ability, language development (English), language development (Spanish) and self-image changes were studied as effects an early intervention program for preschool children. Subjects were fifty 3, 4 and 5-year old children from disadvantaged backgrounds and from bilingual cultures. Subjects also exhibited a number of additional handicapping factors. Differences between groups (N=30 for experimental and N=20 for control) were analyzed with analysis of covariance utilizing pretest scores as covariates. Results indicated that intervention subjects made significantly greater gains in mental ability, language (English) and made greater gains in language (Spanish). Also intervention subjects demonstrated a positive growth in self-image.

Feldman, C. and Shen, M. Some language-related cognitive advantages of bilingual five-year-olds. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1971, 118(2), 235-244.

Fifteen monolingual and 15 bilingual (Spanish-English) Head Start children were compared in their ability at tasks involving object constancy, naming, and the use of names in sentences. The three tasks constitute a natural sequence of language skills. Results indicate that bilinguals performed significantly better than monolinguals in all three tasks. In tasks involving the use of common names, and the use of nonsense names, both groups of subjects are equally competent. However, the bilinguals are better than monolinguals in the use of these same names in relational statements. The use of switched names as labels is also superior in the bilinguals, but the knowledge of names and facility for acquiring new names is equivalent in both groups. It is suggested that young children first regard names as attributes of things they label. Later children learn that names refer to the things they label because someone so uses them. Having a notion of meaning as a function of use might facilitate acquisition of the ability to use labels in sentences and it is concluded that this ability is greatest in bilingual children. (Padilla & Aranda 115, p. 63).

Goldberg, Susan Sher. Problem solving and transfer in preschool children. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Texas at Austin, 1971.

The purpose of this study was to provide information on factors that may lead to "transfer" in the problem-solving processess of preschool Mexican-American and Anglo-American children. The study consisted of two parts:

Part I: The subjects were 5-6 year old Mexican-American children from lower SES families enrolled in the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory Bilingual Early Childhood Program at H. K. Williams School and Good Samaritan Center in San Antonio, Texas. Of the eleven children from the Good Samaritan Center, five were given the training sessions and then the transfer problem, and six were given only the transfer problem. Those children given only the transfer problem were used as a control group to assess the effectiveness of the training sessions and to measure positive, negative, or

absence of transfer. At H. K. Williams School, eleven subjects were given both training and transfer, and thirteen children were given only the transfer problem.

Part II: The subjects were 5-6 year old Anglo-American children from middle SES families enrolled in Jeffrey School in Austin, Texas. Part II of the study involved a similar procedure as in Part I, except, the subjects from the Jeffrey School were given only the transfer problem. It was not known whether the ability to solve this problem would be affected by social class or ethnic background.

Procedure: The subjects were given three training sessions at which they attempted to solve a problem. The training problem--which remained the same during each session--consisted of the child's having to take water out of a bowl and put it into a glass using a variety of materials. With each training session the child was given new materials. None of the materials alone could be used to solve the problem, but in each case, two of the objects could be combined to solve the problem.

The results indicated that a greater percentage of the lower SES Mexican-American children solved the transfer problem than did the middle SES Anglo children. However, inasmuch as the design of Part II was different from Part I, it is difficult to determine from the evidence, any significant differences between Mexican-American and Anglo children in problem-solving process. The writer concludes that children from different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds appear to react similarly and have the same difficulties at this with transfer problems of this type. Therefore, the children should not be treated separately.

Kuzma, Kay J. The effects of three preschool intervention programs on the development of autonomy in Mexican-American and Negro children. Dissertation Abstracts International, 31(4-A): 1623-1624, 1970. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1970 (207 pages).

The author defines autonomy as self-regulating behaviors which facilitate effective problem solving.

The major objectives of the study were: (1) to determine if there were any measurable differences in autonomy between Mexican-American and Negro children, (2) to determine the effects of three different preschool intervention programs upon the development of autonomy in Mexican-American and Negro children, and (3) to determine the relationship between intelligence and the different aspects of autonomy.

The study evaluated 42 Mexican-American; 35 Negro children enrolled in the San Bernardino Summer Head Start program. Nine classrooms selected were assigned randomly to three different treatment groups.

1. Autonomy treatment which utilized specially prepared Autonomy Program Guide--including training techniques to foster the development of autonomy in young children.

2. Language treatment which utilized U.C.L.A. Preschool Language Program. Language development related to different subject areas in school.

3. Regular Head Start treatment--control group.

Test data: child--PPVT intelligence; CATB--Cincinnati Autonomy Test Battery. Teachers and aides--UCLA Characteristics of Teaching Staff. UCLA Teacher Expectations of Achievement for children in Head Start (TEACH), Observer's Rating Form (ORF) and a teacher's reaction sheet.

Results: (1) Mexican American and Negro children appear to be similar in various aspects of autonomy, (2) Autonomous behavior increases when children are in a preschool program irrespective of types of supplementary curricula, (3) Mexican-American children tend to increase more in autonomous behavior during preschool program than Negro, (4) intelligence is increased significantly in 7 weeks when children are in preschool programs which emphasize either language or autonomy, (5) intelligence correlated positively only to those aspects of autonomy which may be considered cognitively oriented--for example, competence in English, task competence persistence, field independence and reflectivity, and (6) differences in training expectations and teaching performance should not be ignored when studying the effects of different intervention programs.

Rieber, Morton and Womack, Marceleete. The intelligence of preschool children as related to ethnic and demographic variables. Exceptional Children, 1968, 34(8), 609-614.

A comparison on the intelligence of preschool children from three ethnic groups is made. A group of 568 Negro, Latin American, and Anglo siblings from families with incomes in the lowest 20 percent for the community were administered the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. Approximately one-fourth were retested after 5 weeks in a Headstart preschool program. The average IQ for Anglos is 85.0, for Negroes 69.0, and for Latins 50.3. Children who scored in the lowest quartile were compared with those in the highest on a number of economic and family variables. Income and educational level of parents, size of family, and maternal employment were found to differ for the two groups. Those children who were retested all made significant gains. These results indicate that the type of experiences offered by the Headstart program are generally missing in their home environment and perhaps their poor showing on the Peabody can primarily be attributed to a broad form of stimulus deprivation. The large differences in average IQ's of the Latin, Anglo, and Negro children are difficult to account for because comparisons across racial groups involve differences in caste as well as in social class and controlling, for one does not eliminate the other. (Padilla & Aranda 367, p. 201).

Sasser, C. Motor development of the kindergarten Spanish-speaking disadvantaged child. Unpublished master's thesis, Texas Women's University, 1970. [Eric Ed 067 186].

The purpose of the study was to determine whether an experimental group of kindergarten age, Spanish-speaking, disadvantaged children could make significant gains in motor skills when given a concentrated motor development program.

The sample consisted of 32 students; 17 students in the experimental group and 15 students in the control group attending kindergarten classes in San Antonio, Texas.

A concentrated motor development program was given to the experimental group for a period of 7 weeks. The control group was given no extra motor activities other than free outside play. Pretest and post-test scores, Ayres' Perceptual Motor Test was used indicated that gains in the bilateral rhythms, body balance with vision, body balance without vision, and skin design tests were significant for the experimental group. Gains on the gross-motor planning test and the draw-a-man test were found not to be significant.

Southern, M. L. and Plant, W. T. Differential cognitive development within and between racial and ethnic groups of disadvantaged preschool and kindergarten children. The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1971, 119, 259-266.

This report is a description of cognitive characteristics of a large sample of economically disadvantaged preschoolers. Standardized psychometrics not heretofore employed for testing differential growth among such samples were employed.

The subjects were 370 children enrolled in a year-round prekindergarten program. 245 kindergarten children were also tested.

Results: The authors contend that the results of the study, combined with those obtained by others, very strongly indicate that young children from economically impoverished families display deficient general intellectual and language abilities. In addition, they also display consistent patterns of different specific intellectual and language abilities. Additionally, the differential intellectual and language performance of low SES children may be partly a function of their specific racial or ethnic backgrounds.

Spence, Janet Taylor. Verbal and nonverbal rewards and punishments in the discrimination learning of children of varying socioeconomic status. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 6, 381-384.

The sample consisted of 200 four and five year old lower-class children of Latin American and Negro ethnic background from day-care centers in Corpus Christi, Texas, and middle-class children, primarily Anglos, from preschools in Austin, Texas. Ten boys and

girls were selected for each SEC.

The subjects were given a two-alternative discrimination list and after each choice, were shown the correct item. Control subjects received only this feedback. The four experimental groups received supplementary reinforcers: verbal or non-verbal reward following correct responses or verbal and non-verbal punishment following incorrect responses. The middle-class subjects performed significantly better than the lower-class subjects ($p < .001$). Within each socioeconomic level, however, there were no significant differences among conditions.

Conclusion: "The properties of 'rewards' and 'punishments' and their effects on performance appear to be heavily influenced by other situational variables, and perhaps as well, to subtle characteristics of the reinforcers themselves. The challenge that presents itself is to isolate these determining conditons." (p. 383). The study did not provide specific data as to the performance of the Chicano children subjects.

Stedman, James M., and Adams, Russell L. Achievement as a function of language competence, behavior adjustment, and sex in young disadvantaged Mexican-American children. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1972, 63(5), 411-417.

Language competence in both English and Spanish and non-linguistic (teacher adjustment ratings and sex) behavior measures were obtained from 122 Mexican-American Head Start enrollees. Seventy-six available subjects were later retested for achievement at the end of the first grade. Results indicate that the teacher behavior rating of introversion-extroversion constituted the strongest predictor of language achievement, whereas English-language competence proved to be the strongest predictor of math. Spanish-language competence failed to predict any language variable. Sex did not prove to be a strong predictor of any achievement criteria and failed to correlate significantly with any achievement variable. The behavior patterns of the more extroverted Mexican-American child, which possibly make him more receptive to the teacher-student interaction, are discussed. (Padilla & Aranda 443, p. 241).

Vasquez, James. Measurement of intelligence and language differences. Aztián, 1972, 3(1), n.p.

The author deals with the implications of using translated tests and non-verbal tests for the measurement of intelligence in Chicano children. Research is cited indicating that:

1. Chicanos are disproportionately represented in EMR classes.

2. Problems are with the tests used for EMR referral of Chicanos not the referral process itself. (Mercer, 1970)

3. To translate tests into Spanish is not enough. Cultural biases of the instruments must also be considered. (Keston, Jimenez, 1959).

4. Non-verbal tests may also be culturally biased.

The author concludes by offering two alternatives to the problem of measurement of intelligence in Chicanos: (1) the development of tests which measure the abilities of different linguistic/cultural groups, specifically the Chicano, or (2) doing away with intelligence testing.

Van Duyne, John H. and Gutierrez, Geroge. The regulatory function of language in bilingual children. Journal of Educational Research, 1972, 66(3), 122-124.

The development of the ability of 4-, 5-, 6-, and 7-year-old bilingual children to perform a complex perceptual-motor task when they were given only Spanish or English verbal instructions is investigated. Six Mexican-American children from each of the four age groups were selected. The initial task was to press a square to a blue light and a circle to a yellow light. Half of the subjects were instructed in English and the other half in Spanish. In the second task the color-form associations of the initial task were reversed and instructions given in whichever language treatment they had not previously had. Results indicate that children perform better when given Spanish instructions. This is especially true for the 5-year-olds. Results also indicate that performance under both languages increases with age, and that a stable system of perceptual-motor connections is established by verbal instructions under the Spanish treatment at age 6 and under the English treatment at age 7. (Padilla & Aranda 469, p. 255).

MISCELLANEOUS

Andersson, Theodore. Bilingual Education and early childhood. Paper presented at the First Annual International Multilingual, Multicultural Conference, San Diego, CA, April 2-5, 1973. [Eric Ed 074 868].

Part I of the paper considers conventional bilingual-bicultural programs, observing that there is still much need for improvement. According to the author successful programs require adequate societal information; a clear understanding between school, home and community; a satisfactory statement of basic program philosophy, rationale, goals and objectives; a sound program design; provision for research; and a clear description and evaluation of the program at each stage for the benefit of other interested communities. Part II explores the field of early childhood, especially ages 2-5, and finds implications for innovative bilingual-bicultural education. The paper points to evidence that in these early years children have a great though often untapped potential for learning in such areas as language, culture, art, music, literature, numbers, nature study and human relations. It concludes that the best way to achieve a significant new advance in bilingual-bicultural education is to take full advantage of the prodigious learning potential of children from birth to age five.

Leslie, Judith W. Preschools for Mexican Americans: Research and curriculum. [Eric Ed 080 186].

Current preschool programs for Mexican American children are examined. Programs are categorized as either experimental or non-experimental. The emphasis of the experimental section is upon research findings, while the emphasis of the non-experimental section is upon the curriculum and its implementation. Six studies are discussed in the experimental section: the findings suggest that bilingual instruction is not superior to English or Spanish instruction in terms of student achievement. However, one study showed successful social adjustment on the part of Mexican-American children involved in bilingual programs. Findings also showed integrated classrooms to facilitate achievement gains for Mexican Americans. Seventeen programs are discussed in the non-experimental section. Findings indicate that in some cases acquisition of a specific English vocabulary enables a greater percentage of Mexican American children than normal to progress to subsequent grades in school. Three outstanding features of these preschool programs are a bilingual approach, a greater degree of parental involvement than in most preschool programs, and an awareness and appreciation of Mexican American cultural heritage.

Miranda, Consuelo. A bilingual oral language and conceptual development for Spanish-speaking pre-school children. [Ed 034 568] Lansing: Michigan State Dept. of Ed., August, 1968.

Paper bound edition of a series of lessons to be used in an English language and conceptual development program for 4 to 5 year old migrant Spanish-speaking children. Overall goal of lessons is to provide the child with the language and conceptual skills he needs to benefit from a standard school setting.

The lessons are based on structured Oral Language Circles 15 minutes in length to be utilized in 59 English Circles and 61 Spanish Circles 3 sessions per day for 8 weeks.

Nedler, Shari Evans. Curriculum development for pre-school Spanish-speaking children of the Southwest: a study of the translation of a developmental process into classroom practice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin, 1972. (D.A.I., 34A [August, 1973] 560-A).

The purpose of this study is to document and analyze the application of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) development process to the design of a comprehensive early childhood learning system for economically disadvantaged Spanish-speaking children. The study reviews and analyzes, in detail, SEDL's six-stage process for production and testing of a replicable strategy as it was applied in the development of early childhoold bilingual programs in San Antonio, Mc Allen, Galveston, Edinburg and Alamo Heights (San Antonio), Texas and Somerton, Arizona. The comprehensive strategy used in developing the programs was to design curriculum and staff development materials while concurrently testing these materials in each of the development centers.

The subjects were three and four year old Spanish-speaking children enrolled in a preschool program. Comparison groups were selected consisting of children enrolled in twelve month full-day, day-care programs and comparable in age, ethnicity and SEC.

The results indicated that children in the SEDL program post-tested significantly higher than comparison groups when tested for intellectual development at all age levels, language development at ages 3 and 4 when tested in Spanish, and indicated a difference in language development, though not statistically significant, when tested at ages 3 and 4 in English. Although both groups indicated respectable gains the children in the SEDL program demonstrated greatest growth in the areas tested.

Selz, Nina Arrenva. Effects of preschool intervention upon minority pupil performance in primary grades. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin 1972) Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 33A(7), No. 3168A.

This research studied the effects of preschool intervention on 72 Mexican American primary grade pupils in a low income urban area in San Antonio, Texas.

Performance data in achievement (Metropolitan Achievement Test), educational ability (STEA), and self-concept were obtained from three groups of pupils. Group one were 24 children in the primary grades with no preschool intervention, group two were 24 peers

who had attended one year of kindergarten, and group three were 24 pupils who had graduated from a bilingual Early Childhood Education Program.

There were few significant results. Overall, pupils who had preschool educational experiences had higher mean scores than children with no intervention. The treatment groups were equal in ability at each grade level; only the first grade kindergarten graduates differed significantly from other groups on reading achievement and there were differences in grades on self-concept scores.

The number of years of preschool intervention had an appreciable effect upon reading achievement scores.

ADDENDUM

Castillo, Max S. and Cruz, Jr. Josue. Special competencies for teachers of preschool Chicano children: rationale, content, and assessment process. Young Children, 1974, September, 341-347.

The authors have identified special competencies for preschool teachers of Chicano children and have included an assessment process for those competencies. The teacher competencies are based on the awareness of the differences which exist between Anglo-American and Chicano children - cultural characteristics, value orientations, traditions and life styles which, unless recognized and respected by the teacher, may result in negative long-term effects on the child's educational success. Citing the research of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), Ramirez (1971) (1973), Carter (1968) (1970), Soares (1969), Trowbridge (1972), and Purkey (1970), the authors establish a theoretical framework for the special competencies "Unique to a Teacher of Spanish-Speaking Children." The competencies were organized into three categories followed by specific behavioral referents for each:

1. Enhancing the verbal and instructional behavior of the Mexican-American child.
2. Developing curricular activities that will build positive self-concept and self-esteem in Chicano children.
3. Developing liaison between parents, the school, and the child.

In order to evaluate the specific competencies in the candidate, the following two-part assessment process was developed.

1. Self-assessment - The teacher rates her/himself on each competency. The results are compiled on a profile card.
2. Integrated Competency Assessment Scale (ICAS) - This scale is used in conjunction with the self assessment results by a qualified assessor to evaluate the candidate's competencies according to five rating determinants which focus on the assessor's observation and evaluation of candidate's classroom behavior and interaction with children, curricular activities, classroom environment, teacher behavior and the documentation of time devoted to the observation and evaluation of the candidate.

COMPETENCIES

CULTURE

Introductory Statement: In the identification of minimum cultural competencies to be expected of the CDA working with Chicano children consideration was given to the following:

1. That the competencies and behavioral referents identified should focus on behaviors which will have direct impact on the Chicano preschool child.

2. That it should be emphasized that the following are to be considered minimums and not an all inclusive set of behaviors and knowledge which would be desirable in the CDA working with Chicanos.

3. That as instruments are refined and areas of need and inadequacy are identified competencies will be added and removed.

The CDA working with the Chicano* preschool child should have an understanding and appreciation of the diversity, tenacity and richness of the child's cultural background; that is that cultural identity which has persisted in this country in spite of tremendous pressures for assimilation. An indication of this understanding and appreciation would be the knowledge of familial roles and values, community referents and historical contributions of the Chicano. With this knowledge, however, the CDA should also be aware of the heterogeneity of Chicano communities. He/she should be able to identify, using processes such as those proposed by Ramírez and Castañeda, the lifestyle, historical referents and cultural features of the specific Chicano community which he/she serves.

*In this document the term Chicano refers to persons who were born in Mexico and now hold United States citizenship or whose parents or more remote ancestors immigrated to the United States from Mexico. It also refers to persons who trace their lineage to Hispanic or Indo-Hispanic forebears who resided within Spanish or Mexican American territory that is now part of the Southwestern United States.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
1. CDA will demonstrate a basic knowledge of Mexican history and culture and apply this knowledge in the development and implementation of cultural activities for the preschool child.	1.1 The CDA will incorporate into the preschool program activities and materials which focus on the art, music and dance of Mexico.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
2. The CDA will demonstrate a knowledge of the contributions of the Chicano to the history and culture of the United States and apply this knowledge in the development and implementation of cultural activities for the preschool child.	1.2 Through the utilization of role playing activities, flannel board stories, room displays, and the sharing of historical artifacts, the CDA will develop in the preschool Chicano child an appreciation of the history and culture of Mexico. 1.3 The CDA will utilize the folklore of Mexico in preschool cultural activities. Specific activities will include, but are not limited to: a. flannel board stories b. dramatization c. reading stories aloud to children d. art activities e. use of rhymes and songs f. use of community members as sources of folklore material (e.g., parents, elders,. . .) 1.4 The CDA will introduce the child to notable Mexican historical and contemporary figures at his level of comprehension through the appropriate means of instruction. 1.5 The CDA will introduce and celebrate with the children, using appropriate props and activities, the Mexican holidays and celebrations which are observed by the local communities. 2.1 The CDA will incorporate into the preschool program activities and materials which utilize the art, music and dance of local and regional Chicano communities.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	2.2 The CDA will utilize in the entire learning environment displays of prominent historical and contemporary Chicanos from the the local community.
	2.3 The CDA will invite local prominent Chicanos (e.g., parents, Chicano teachers, professionals, older brothers and sisters) to interact with the preschool class.
	2.4 The CDA will invite local community members as models of Chicanos functioning in "non-traditional" roles (e.g., Chicana professionals, Chicano preschool and primary education staff members . . .).
	2.5 The CDA will select and utilize appropriate level materials (e.g., books for reading to children, taped stories, posters, games) which reflect the cultural and historical contributions of Chicanos.
	2.6 The CDA will use the folklore of the local Chicano community in the learning environment through the implementation of flannel board activities, dramatizations, and reading aloud to children.
3. The CDA will be able to identify characteristics of contemporary Chicano lifestyles and to utilize this knowledge in the development and implementation of preschool cultural activities.	3.1 The CDA will be able to describe and discuss the heterogeneity of the Chicano culture and to demonstrate in cross-cultural curriculum planning and implementation, the importance of this heterogeneity.
	3.2 The CDA will provide activities for role-playing family members in varying situations.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	3.3 The CDA will provide activities for the children to draw and discuss pictures of their home and families. 3.4 The CDA will develop and implement cooking activities for the preschool program as a means of (1) familiarizing the children with the nutritional value of his native (chicano) foods and (2) instilling in the children an appreciation of foods from different cultures. 3.5 The CDA will, in activities focusing on the community, include information on the involvement of the Chicano in the history and contemporary life of the community. This will include the identification and discussion in class of specific elements of the community which may be of importance to the lifestyle of the Chicano (e.g., la tiendita, the park, the church, the street). 3.6 The CDA will identify Chicano community organizations and institutions which may be utilized in the preschool program, in the following manner (to be completed within two months of hiring): a. as resources of information on the local Chicano communities. b. as resources of volunteers for use in instructional programs. c. as resources for support personnel and activities. 3.7 The CDA will be aware of and sensitive to the different Chicano cultural referents and utilize the referents in the: a. facilitation of communication between the program, families and other community groups. b. the reduction of anxiety and conflict between Chicano parents and the educational system.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	3.8 The CDA will actively involve Chicano parents in the preschool program through: a. their involvement as volunteer personnel on a parity relationship with the teacher. b. their utilization as liaisons between the program and community. c. their utilization in curriculum development.

LANGUAGE

Introductory Statement: In identifying those language competencies desirable in CDA's working with Chicano children, it was necessary to bear in mind the vast diversity in language skills that characterizes this population. Depending on a variety of factors, a Chicano child may grow up speaking English only, Spanish only, or exhibiting some degree of bilingualism. The CDA who hopes to be maximally effective in providing quality child care for all Chicanos should be prepared to deal with this variation.

In view of the wide spectrum of language abilities that can characterize a Chicano child, it is strongly recommended that fluency in both languages be required for CDA's working with such children. To accept anything less would be to deny some Chicano children under the care of CDA their right to quality child care. If the CDA is to foster in the Chicano child a positive self-concept, he/she must be prepared to do so in the child's first language. In the case of the Chicano, this language could be Spanish, or English, or both.

Only Spanish is referred to in the competencies, since it is assumed that the CDA candidate, in meeting the "regular" requirements, will be expected to demonstrate proficiency in English. A candidate possessing the competencies described below will be equipped not only to accept and develop the child's first lanauge (if Spanish), but also be able to teach the child English in a systematic way.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
1. Ability to understand the Spanish language variety spoken by the children of the geographic region in which he/she is to be employed.	1.1 Will respond appropriately to the child's variety of Spanish in a positive, accepting manner when addressed in that variety by the children in the learning environment, including the playground. 1.2 Will respond appropriately to the child's variety of Spanish when addressed in that variety by the children in a non-school setting.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
2. Ability to speak a variety of Spanish that can be understood adequately by native Spanish speakers of the area, with acceptable fluency and pronunciation.	2.1 Will conduct a sustained learning activity using only Spanish, with a minimum of hesitation and interference from English. 2.2 Will be able to interact verbally with members of the child's family and community, at meetings, home visits, or social gatherings, using only Spanish. 2.3 Will explain to the parents, in Spanish, the educational objectives and the activities undertaken to reach said objectives.
3. Ability to present in Spanish concepts parallel to those presented in English for this age group.	3.1 Will conduct a sustained learning activity using Spanish words appropriate to the lesson and the age group, with acceptable pronunciation and fluency.
4. Ability to use Spanish for praising and self-concept enhancement.	4.1 Will use phrases of praise and enhancement of self-concept as an integral part of his/her classroom routine (e.g., !Muy bien!, !Que bueno!, etc.). 4.2 Will demonstrate ability to respond to the child's classroom setbacks with phrases of encouragement (e.g., Puedes hacerlo).
5. Ability to translate appropriate school forms from English to Spanish.	5.1 Will translate in general terms, appropriate school forms normally found in the school office from English to Spanish.
6. Ability to write using the regional variety of Spanish.	6.1 Will write a note in both Spanish and English for each of the following situations: a. An upcoming meeting or event. b. The progress of the child in the program. c. Information about the program.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
7. Ability to read children's stories, rhymes, and songs aloud in Spanish.	7.1 Given a children's story, rhyme, or song to read in Spanish, the candidate will read it aloud, with acceptable pronunciation and fluency.
8. Ability to label orally in Spanish, the pieces of equipment usually found in the classroom and to explain their function to the children and parents.	8.1 Given three pieces of equipment (e.g., a puzzle, a set of blocks, and a tricycle), the candidate will provide the appropriate label orally and explain its role in the program in Spanish.
9. Knowledge of the linguistic differences between English and Spanish, and the implications of these differences for oral language development and enhancement of self-concept.	9.1 Candidate will identify at least two potential problem areas for a Spanish-speaking Chicano child learning English, in the categories of: a. The sound system (ch/sh,s/z). b. Grammar negation questions
	9.2 Candidate will state two ways in which knowledge of Spanish-English linguistic differences will help him/her set realistic language goals for his/her pupils.
10. Knowledge of teaching strategies relevant to teaching English to Spanish-speaking pre-schoolers.	10.1 Candidate will conduct a sustained language activity using modern foreign-language teaching techniques, including: a. Pattern drills b. Controlled conversation
	10.2 Candidate will make use of poems, sayings, rhymes, and songs in teaching the Spanish-speaking Chicano child English (language experience approach).
11. Knowledge of first language extension techniques.	11.1 Using the child's native language abilities as a base, the candidate will enrich the child's language through the introduction of new vocabulary and idiomatic expressions.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
12. Knowledge of first language acquisition and second language learning processes.	12.1 Candidate will name two ways in which learning a second language differs from acquiring a first language.
13. Ability to develop and/or adapt curriculum for use in Spanish-conducted learning activities.	13.1 Given a lesson taken from a pre-school curriculum written in English, the candidate will adapt it for use in teaching the same concept in Spanish, or will develop a lesson in Spanish should adaptation not be feasible.
14. Ability to develop and/or adapt curriculum to alleviate interference problems from Spanish to English.	14.1 Having identified the problem areas, the candidate will select one and develop a lesson or adapt an existing lesson to deal with the problem, incorporating modern language teaching techniques.
15. Basic knowledge and awareness of existing standardized assessment instruments for this age level currently in use in the region, and their applicability to Chicano children.	15.1 Candidate, upon examining one of the existing instruments, will identify its strengths and weaknesses.
16. Knowledge of alternative ways of assessing achievement in Spanish and English.	16.1 The candidate will identify alternate approaches to language assessment to include but not limited to: a. Informal observation in different situations, including the classroom and play situations. b. Informal instruments designed to assess specific program goals.
17. Ability to use assessment results in planning language development curriculum.	17.1 Given a set of results gathered through formal or informal means, in English or Spanish, the candidate will plan a lesson to deal with one problem area identified by the assessment.

Introductory Statement: The competencies delineated below relate specifically to the Field Sensitive mode of learning as applied to the Chicano child. The competencies are stated in terms of teaching strategies researched by Ramírez on Chicano population samples. His objective was to describe culturally related modes of learning and correlate them to appropriate teacher behaviors and teaching strategies. Ramírez' research identified two culturally significant modes of learning: Field Independent and Field Sensitive. The Field Sensitive learner tends to be more aware of the social environment, more influenced by expressions of confidence and doubt, and prefers to interact with authority figures with whom he can establish a personal relationship.*

It was the concensus of the research panel that the competencies be stated in a manner that would facilitate identification and evaluation of the desired skills. The competency statements and the behavioral referents have been determined to be effective in working with the Chicano child. (see: Ramírez, M. and Castañeda, A., [in press]; Ramírez, M. and Castañeda, A., [1972]; Kagan, [1974]; Ramírez, M., Cox, B., Macaulay, J., Velasco, E. and Domínguez, M.L. [1972, 1973, 1974]; Ramírez, M., Castañeda, A. and Herold, P. L., [in press]; in Appendix A). However, the competencies are not restricted to the Chicano child but may be applicable in meeting the needs of other children.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
1. The C.D.A. will provide for the arrangement of the learning environment to facilitate the appropriate adult-child contact in order to promote learning in the Field Sensitive mode.	1.1 The C.D.A. will develop effective techniques by the use of small tables, rugs and other areas to facilitate contact with the children. 1.2 The C.D.A. will be able to organize the learning environment in learning centers to provide for individual attention for children or small groups of children.
2. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to relate and humanize the curriculum in keeping with the Field Sensitive learning style of the Chicano child.	2.1 The C.D.A. will develop effective techniques (e.g., the utilization of puppets and felt figures) for introducing concepts in the curriculum. 2.2 The C.D.A. will develop culturally sensitive/ compatible instructional materials (i.e., cut-outs, etc.) which include items depicting people, animals, faces.

*The reader is urged to refer to Ramirez' study in Appendix A for a comprehensive treatment of these concepts.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	2.3 The C.D.A. will develop effective techniques for story telling which encourage the children to empathize with each other and with characters and incidents in the story.
	2.4 The C.D.A. will provide opportunities for the children to tell stories about pictures they draw or paint.
	2.5 The C.D.A. will provide opportunities for the Chicanito to role play.
3. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to personalize the curriculum as it relates to the Chicano child by sharing personal experiences and interests of the children and himself.	3.1 The C.D.A. will relate personal experiences to the children by displaying and showing pictures of his/her family (extended family, i.e., el abuelo, la abuelita, el tío, la tía,. . .).
	3.2 The C.D.A. will arrange for visits by members of his/her family as well as the children's family to share experiences with the children.
	3.3 The C.D.A. will share with the other children the cultural experiences and cultural uniqueness of each child and himself through planned activities and experiences.
	3.4 The C.D.A. will display photographs of each child and his family through appropriate displays.
	3.5 The C.D.A. will relate personal experiences in the curriculum material by referring to local places and persons relevant to the children.
4. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to accept and respond appropriately to the child's feelings.	4.1 The C.D.A. will provide opportunities for children to work next to him/her during appropriate activities, such as reading and story telling.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	4.2 The C.D.A. will take advantage of opportunities to communicate with individual children through meaningful looks, smiles, putting his/her arm around them.
	4.3 The C.D.A. will share in the children's laughter when the occasion lends itself.
	4.4 The C.D.A. will be sensitive to the emotional upsets the child may be experiencing and not to expect them to perform as usual if he/she knows or senses an unusual situation.
	4.5 The C.D.A. will listen to the child's contributions even if they occur at an inopportune time. If the C.D.A. is occupied with another child or task, he/she should politely say that he/she will listen as soon as he/she has a moment, and then make sure he/she does so.
	4.6 The C.D.A. will provide a free atmosphere for the children to express likes and dislikes about activities in the room. He/she should be able to say: "I know you don't like doing this, but I want you to do it for a little while. After this, we'll do something that you like."
5. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to develop cooperative group activities appropriate to the experiences and background of the Chicano child.	5.1 The C.D.A. will reward instances of helpfulness and consideration he/she observes in the children's behavior with appropriate verbal approval.
	5.2 The C.D.A. will encourage the children to help a new child to the program and verbally reward the children's consideration.
	5.3 The C.D.A. will provide for the assignment and completion of tasks for small groups of children to do together. Playing games, cleaning up or tidying, delivering messages, make good cooperative activities.

COMPETENCY	BEHAVIORAL REFERENTS
	5.4 The C.D.A. will encourage a cooperative attitude regarding classroom behavior in the children.
	5.5 The C.D.A. will direct and encourage the children to help each other in their class work except during assessment activities. For instance, they can ask each other how to say words in Spanish or English.
6. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to develop and implement child-centered learning activities unique to the Chicano child utilizing a variety of community and family resources.	6.1 The C.D.A. will plan appropriate activities which provide for individual children's contributions.
7. The C.D.A. will demonstrate the ability to plan and implement learning activities which provide for the development of manipulative and sensory skills in the curriculum, especially in math and science.	7.1 The C.D.A. will plan appropriate learning activities which include physical movement and involvement in the activities.
	7.2 The C.D.A. will plan learning activities which include the manipulation of the appropriate objects and textures. For example, in teaching geometric shapes, objects such as block, flannel shapes, textured samples could be given to the children to touch and feel.
	7.3 The C.D.A. will plan learning activities which provide the opportunity for the child to see, touch, smell, hear the real object. For example, in teaching about trees, the children should be taken to a park to see, touch, smell the different trees (the concrete object).

APPENDICES

DETERMINING COMPETENCIES OF TEACHERS OF MEXICAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN

A COGNITIVE STYLES APPROACH

by

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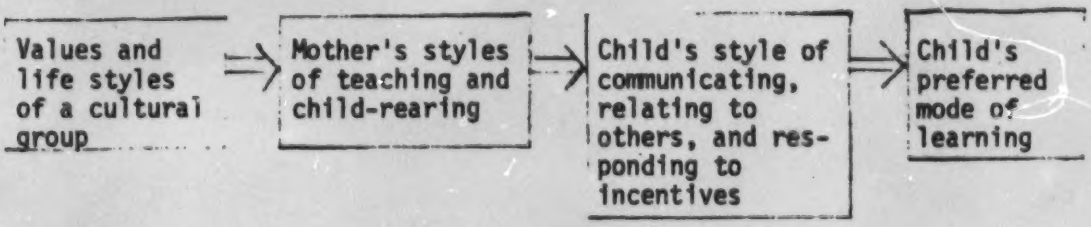
The sociocultural system of Mexican Americans differs from that of most other Americans represented in our schools. A range of variables distinguishes the Mexican-American child from his non-Mexican-American classmates. Of these variables, the relationship of values to children's behavior and performance in school demonstrates the direct effect a child's background has on the way he learns.

The values of Mexican Americans are reflected directly in the socialization or teaching styles of parents and other adults in the home and community. These teaching practices shape the development of learning, communication, incentive-motivational, and human-relational styles in children.


Values and life styles of a cultural group
Mother's styles of teaching and child-rearing
Child's style of communicating, relating to others, and responding to incentives
Child's preferred mode of learning

In general, schools have not been responsive to the psychodynamics of Mexican-American children, and have attempted to force these students to accept the sociocultural system of the school. This has resulted in value conflicts, anxiety, and failure for Mexican-American students.

Research by Lesser (1968), Cohen (1969), and also Ramirez and Castañeda (1974) has indicated that teaching strategies, learning environments, curriculum materials, and assessment instruments and practices must be made consonant with the psychodynamics of students of different cultural and linguistic groups in order to ensure the success of children from these groups. It is necessary to develop culturally democratic educational environments, environments that are consonant with the psychodynamics of students, that respect and reinforce their identification with their ethnic and/or linguistic group, and furthermore, that develop in children a mental and behavioral flexibility that helps them respond to the particular demands made of bicultural individuals by American society.

Characteristics of teachers, teaching strategies and culturally democratic educational environments

This paper focuses on one of the most important components of culturally democratic educational environments: characteristics of teachers and teaching strategies. It will review research that has attempted to identify Mexican-American parents' socialization practices, attitudes toward socialization and education, and teaching strategies. It will show how the findings of such research have led to attempts to provide means of establishing congruity between the teacher-student relationships of the school and those of the home and neighborhood. The latter part of this paper discusses recent research on cognitive styles of students, as well as efforts to encourage development of students' unfamiliar cognitive styles with a view toward achieving the goal of mental and behavioral flexibility.

Mexican-American Parents' Attitudes Toward Socialization and Education

Ramirez and Price-Williams (in preparation) administered a questionnaire reflecting socialization practices and attitudes toward socialization and education to Mexican-American and Anglo-American parents of children in several Catholic schools in Houston, Texas. The results showed differences in attitudes and socialization practices between the two groups (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

Attitudes Toward Socialization and Education

	% Agreement	
	Mexican American	Anglo American
1. Parents should pass on their culture to their children.	80	56
2. Encourage children to learn language of parents, if other than English.	89	48
3. Alright for a child to learn to doubt parent's ideas.	22	34
4. Loyalty to the family should come before everything else.	84	71
5. Relatives are more important than friends.	66	31
6. A mother should shelter her child from life's difficulties.	65	43
7. A mother should give up her own happiness for her child.	64	25
8. Children should be discouraged from playing with toys not appropriate to their sex.	67	31
9. Parents should not treat their child as an equal.	77	42
10. Children should not participate in adult conversation.	92	53
11. Children should not be encouraged to try hard for success.	89	79
12. It is important to work and plan for the future rather than to enjoy now.	82	37

These results seem to indicate that Mexican-American parents, more than Anglo parents, emphasize identification with the family, loyalty to the language and ethnic group, separation of the sex roles, respect for convention, respect for adults, sacrifice of personal interests for the child's welfare, and the importance of striving for success (goal orientation).

Research on Teaching Styles of Mexican-American Parents

Ramirez observed teaching styles of Mexican-American parents in both Sacramento, California, and Houston, Texas. These observations indicated that Mexican-American parents: 1) made much use of social rewards which strengthened the personal relationship between the parent and the child; 2) encouraged the child to work cooperatively with others in the family and to achieve so that the family would benefit; 3) used modelling and close guidance in teaching new tasks; 4) were extremely sensitive to the feelings and mood of the child; and 5) used endearing terms and phrases in Spanish in reinforcing the child for a task well done.

Following up on his work, Ramirez and Castañeda (1972) observed styles of Mexican-American and Anglo-American mothers with First and Second Grade children. The experimenter instructed each mother in the use of a game toy and asked the mother, in turn, to teach it to her child. A videotape was made of each mother teaching her child and used in later analysis.

The results showed that the preferred teaching style of Mexican-American mothers was modelling: e.g. "This is the way you do it. Now you do it like I did." Mexican-American mothers used this approach with both male and female children. Anglo American mothers used the modelling approach for the female children, but a "trial-and-error" approach with the male children. With the male children, the mother would give verbal instructionals for the game, and then would ask the child to try it himself.

In addition, it was noticed that Mexican-American mothers tended to give their children more encouragement and support when the child was experiencing difficulty than did the Anglo mothers.

Each mother had been asked to tell a story of their own choosing to their child at the conclusion of the game. The results from this portion of the study showed that Mexican-American mothers tended to personalize their stories (e.g. told stories from their own experience as children, or of their own parents or relatives) more than Anglo American mothers. Also, stories told by Mexican-American mothers tended to have more themes reinforcing identification with the family and achievement for the family.

In a recent study, Kagan (1974) compared the number of reinforcements given by Mexican-American and Anglo American mothers to their

children while the children performed a task. He found not only that Mexican-American mothers gave more reinforcements than the Anglo American mothers, but also that Mexican-American mothers tended to reinforce both correct and incorrect responses from the children. An analysis of non-verbal communication between the mothers and their children, and one of the verbatim reinforcements would probably enable one to distinguish between the reinforcements for correct responses and those for incorrect responses, and the results must not be construed to indicate that the child is not able to discriminate between the two. The point is that the Mexican-American mother offers more verbal support for the child's attempts.

Culture Matching Teaching Strategies

The data from the studies reviewed was used in developing a set of teaching strategies entitled the Culture Matching Teaching Strategies (CMTS). These strategies have been used to train and evaluate teachers in experimental classrooms of the Culturally Democratic Learning Environments Follow Through model at the University of California, Santa Cruz. (Ramirez, Cox, Macaulay, Velasco & Dominguez, 1972, 1973, 1974).

Use of these strategies (See Appendix A) by teachers helps Mexican-American children from traditional communities feel more self-confident and achieve more success academically. If the children are more comfortable during those first critical weeks of school, much of the initial "culture shock" can be avoided.

Improvement of self-esteem is also accomplished through CMTS. Some of the strategies emphasize use of Spanish, Mexican, and Mexican-American heritage materials in classroom curricula and activities. The strategies enhance intercultural understanding by creating an atmosphere in the classroom that allows teachers and children to interact without conflict. Moreover, by allowing Mexican-American children to explore other cultures and become acquainted with the school by way of their own language and culture, having already developed self-esteem and feeling their own culture is valuable in the school, the strategies assist in achieving the goal of developing a bicultural identity in these children.

Cognitive Styles

Intensive observation and evaluation (See Instrument, Appendix C) of academic performance of children in the Follow Through experimental classrooms at Cucamonga Elementary School revealed that while the academic achievement of most Mexican-American children was enhanced by teachers' using CMTS, there were some Mexican-American children who seemed to respond better to teaching strategies which differed greatly from CMTS. This led to additional research to determine variables which might account for these differences.

We have already discussed the direct influence of values and socialization on children's style of learning. In looking at values and socialization, therefore, we found distinct differences appeared that were directly related to the type of community being studied. As a consequence, Ramirez and Castañeda (1974) devised a classification scheme describing Mexican-American communities. It will become obvious that not all Mexican-American communities, nor all Mexican-Americans residing in a particular community, could possibly be described in this manner. The classification is as follows:

Traditional Mexican American Communities

The development of values of Mexican Americans living in traditional communities is more affected by Mexican culture than by majority American culture. Values of most members of these communities indicate that they have close ties to members of their extended families, they are familiar with both Mexican and Mexican American history, and their interpersonal relationships are characterized by warmth and a commitment to mutual help. Child rearing practices emphasize respect for adults, family, and religious authority, and there is strong identification with Mexican Catholic ideology.

Most of these communities are rural, located near the Mexican border, with close cultural ties with Mexico. Mexican Americans usually comprise a majority of the population of traditional communities and consequently have considerable political and economic power. Most traditional communities are located in southern Texas, in border areas of New Mexico, and in the San Joaquin and Coachella Valleys and border areas of California.

Dualistic Mexican American Communities

Mexican Americans of dualistic communities feel pressure to incorporate values of the mainstream American middle class. However, this is counterbalanced by similar pressures to maintain identification with traditional Mexican values. (There are also pressures to incorporate values of other ethnic groups that reside in these communities.) In general, the "more middle-class" Mexican Americans living in these communities have incorporated more of the majority American values.

Mexican Americans are a minority and usually have only minimal economic or political influence. Dualistic communities are generally semiurban and located farther from the Mexican border than traditional communities. Dualistic communities are found in or near large cities of the Southwest, in the greater Los Angeles metropolitan area (examples are Riverside and San Bernardino) and in the San Francisco Bay area (San Jose).

Atraditional Mexican-American Communities

In atraditional communities, Mexican Americans are subject to intense pressures to incorporate values of the mainstream American middle class. The atraditional community is usually urban or suburban and distant from Mexico. Mexican Americans are a minority in atraditional communities and experience continual contact with Anglo Americans. Atraditional communities are found in the Los Angeles metropolitan area (sections of eastern Los Angeles such as Montebello, Monterey Park, and Whittier) and also in suburban areas of other cities of the Southwest.

The differences among Mexican-American communities affect values and socialization practices, resulting in differences in cognitive style development. Children of traditional communities are usually field sensitive in cognitive style. Children reared in dualistic communities are usually more field independent than children of traditional communities, and children socialized in atraditional communities are usually the most field independent. (Ramirez, Castañeda, and Herold, in press.)

Assessment of cognitive styles was originally accomplished through perceptual tests such as the Rod and Frame Test and the Embedded Figures Tests. In a field sensitive mode of perception, the organization of a field as a whole dominates perception of its parts: an item within a field is viewed or experienced as fused with an organized ground. In a field independent mode of perception, the person is able to perceive items as discrete from the organized whole of the field.

Cognitive style is partly concerned with the importance people attach to parts or wholes. Some people have a style of perceiving the world in such a way that the smallest details almost always stand out. Other people primarily perceive the "big picture."

Cognitive style also refers to differences in perceiving social aspects of the environment. For example, some people tend as a matter of habit to focus on others' facial expressions and moods; they are extremely sensitive to non-verbal indicators of feelings. Other persons respond more readily to verbal statements or general features of the environment.

In general, field sensitive persons appear to be more imaginative in verbally describing social situations. The social environment seems to be more significant for field sensitive persons: they remember faces and social words better than field independent persons. The field sensitive individual is more influenced by expressions of confidence or doubt than is the field independent person.

Field independent persons perform better than field sensitive on tests that involve separating a part from an organized whole or rearranging parts to make a whole. They also tend to be "task centered" while taking tests. Field sensitive persons, on the other hand, tend

to glance at the examiner and pay more attention to the social atmosphere of the testing situation.

Field sensitive persons prefer to interact with authority figures with whom they can establish a personal relationship, while field independents prefer authority figures who take a more passive, consultant-like role. (See Appendix B for a more detailed description of characteristics of field sensitive and field independent children).

These examples indicate that cognitive style is revealed through ways we think and act in many different situations. The meaning of cognitive style, then, must include more than sensitivity to wholes or parts. The behavior observation instruments in Appendix C afford a more comprehensive assessment of cognitive styles and can be used by teachers after a short training period.

Bicognitive Development

Further research in the area of cognitive styles resulted in the identification of children who behave in both cognitive styles. That is, they exhibit "cognitive switching," the ability to draw upon both field-sensitive and field independent styles at any given time or can change from one to the other. The style these individuals employ seem to be dictated by characteristics of the activity, task, or particular social atmosphere. The behavioral versatility exhibited by these persons indicates a bicognitive development. Their behavior can reflect either cooperation or competition; they can solve problems requiring inductive or deductive reasoning; they can respond to or effectively ignore the social environment.

The most important goal of culturally democratic educational environments is to facilitate bicognitive development in children. If children are able to utilize both the field-sensitive and field-independent cognitive styles, they will have more than one approach to apply in learning and problem solving. This objective is important for all children, but especially critical for Mexican American children. In order to meet the demands of two cultural environments Mexican-American children must use behaviors from both the intellectual and affective domains that are appropriate to the particular situation and the cultural environment in which it occurs. Education's efforts to help Mexican-American children function in two cultures can be facilitated by a working understanding of the concept of bicognitive development. One sociocultural system, that of traditional Mexican-American communities, primarily requires the individual to respond using communication, human-relational, incentive-motivational and learning styles of the field-sensitive mode. On the other hand, that of the mainstream American middle class usually requires field-independent behavioral responses.

The conflicts experienced by some Mexican-American students can be attributed to the fact that they have not had an opportunity to learn to function in the style required by the situation. The Mexican-American student experiences conflict and frustrations in his attempts

to cope with the demands of either the traditional Mexican-American or the mainstream American culture. This student often feels that to function successfully in one culture, he must reject the other.

Our most recent research in the Culturally Democratic Learning Environments model has focused on a process for stimulating bicognitive development in Mexican-American children. (Ramirez and Castañeda, 1974; Ramirez, Herold, and Castañeda, 1974; Ramirez, Cox, Macaulay, Velasco, and Dominguez, 1973 and 1974). Much of this procedure has evolved from research we have been doing which shows that if the cognitive styles teachers use in the classroom is matched to the cognitive style in which children learn, children's academic performance is enhanced. Furthermore, the results show that if children are introduced to the unfamiliar cognitive style in terms that are consonant with their preferred style, they can begin to function effectively in both styles, i.e. bicognitively. In order to do this, of course, teachers must be able to use both cognitive styles comfortably in their teaching.

Field Sensitive and Field Independent Teaching Strategies

Research with parents of field sensitive children led to identification of teaching behaviors and similar strategies. We also identified several teachers and paraprofessionals who scored very field independent. Intensive observation of behaviors of these persons in the classrooms led to identification of the following behaviors:

1. Personal Behaviors. The overall relationship between teachers and students is quite different in the case of field sensitive and field independent teaching. The most visible feature of field sensitive teaching is an openly warm and expressive teacher. The field sensitive teacher is very responsive to students' feelings, even when the students don't openly say what they are feeling. The field independent teaching strategy, on the other hand, minimizes the importance of close, personal interactions between students and teachers. Perhaps the best word to use in describing the atmosphere of field independent teaching is formal. Another term might be impersonal (without implying aloofness or coldness). The teacher using the field independent strategy rarely allows attention to be shifted from instructional materials. The explanation for these different emphases is to be found in the preferred learning styles of field sensitive and field independent children. Where field sensitive children actively seek approval and acceptance, field independent children are distracted and even irritated by an overly attentive adult. The field independent learner prefers a teacher who emphasizes individual effort and self-guidance.

2. Instructional Behaviors. The personal behaviors we have described form the basis of teaching (instructional behavior). The field sensitive teacher is always concerned with creating a warm and secure environment. With field sensitive learners, then, the teacher begins a lesson by first expressing confidence in the children's ability to succeed. The teacher also considers the interest field sensitive

children often have in the purpose of a lesson and its personal relevance. For this reason, the teacher will indicate the usefulness of the concept to be taught. For example, we have observed teachers saying "When you can do this, you will be able to help your mother when she goes shopping at Center Market," or "When you know how to read the clock, you can help me by telling me when we should start getting ready to go to the cafeteria."

In addition to indicating the usefulness of a lesson, a teacher using the field sensitive teaching strategy should make main principles obvious at the beginning of a lesson. The teacher might say, for example, "Today we are going to learn how to use the clock. As we do this together, you will find out how to look at the lines and numbers and know what time it is. I want you to remember always to look at the hand and the number it is pointing to. Let me show you how I can do this with my clock. Watch carefully, because when I'm through, I want you to put the hand on your clock so that it looks just like mine."

This example also illustrates how a teacher can model desired behaviors. Modelling is particularly appropriate for field sensitive learners, whose parents commonly provide careful examples of how things are to be done at home.

Another important feature of field sensitive teaching is cooperative achievement. Rather than recognizing only the child who finishes first, the field sensitive teacher would use rewards in ways that strengthen a sense of group feeling. "There! I knew that we could do it. All of our clocks have the little hand pointing straight up--they all say that it is 12 o'clock. Now let's do another one together."

The social atmosphere suggested in this example is much easier to achieve when the teacher and students are positioned around a small table. This arrangement also makes it possible for the teacher to conduct informal discussions and to interact closely with students. Being physically close to students makes it easier for the teacher to recognize a student who is confused or in any way distressed. Any expression of feelings on the part of the students is carefully attended to by the field sensitive teacher, who will even interrupt a lesson to respond to students' emotions (spoken and unspoken).

The instructional behaviors in field independent teaching differ considerably from those of the field sensitive teaching strategy. One of the most obvious differences is the way in which the lesson or activity is introduced. The field sensitive teacher, for example, often models the behaviors that children are expected to use in a lesson or activity. Both the field sensitive and the field independent teacher would specify rules or other requirements for the lesson. Only the field independent teacher, however, would hint that other approaches might be discovered by the students. The teacher might even prompt the students to struggle with finding a new procedure: "See if you can find out how. . ." Many field independent learners are disappointed if they are not urged to discover things on their own, and modelling for these children is inappropriate. They generally prefer individual achievement and often enjoy vigorous competition.

For these reasons, the conventional classroom arrangement is often well suited to the field independent teaching strategy. Competition often seems more genuine and exciting if, as in a conventional classroom, the students are separated from one another. This arrangement also has the advantage of encouraging the child to work alone on work sheets and other individual assignments. In addition, the teacher can assume a position behind a desk at a strategic point in the classroom and in this way be available as a resource convener or "consultant."

Both the small group or the more formal, conventional classroom permit the field independent teacher to concentrate on imparting factual information. The role of information dispenser and consultant can take place during the period of one lesson. The teacher might give a short lecture or demonstration at the front of the room, pass out individual assignments, and then announce "I want you to try very hard to do it by yourselves. If you can't do it one way, see if you can find another way. If you really need me, "I'll be at my desk."

As the above example suggests, the field independent teacher is not continually available as a source of approval. Approval is usually granted for individual effort. The teacher might, for example, go about the room looking for an instance of a worksheet or project that meets certain standards. The recognition given by the teacher would emphasize the students' having excelled at the task (rather than pleasing the teacher). Rewards, then, tend to be non-social (awarding grades or stars, posting the student's work on a bulletin board, or granting the student a special privilege). Rewards given in the course of field sensitive teaching tend, by comparison, to be social in nature (smiles, hugs), involve an expression of feelings on the teacher's part ("It makes me very happy to see how nicely you and Maria can do that"), and frequently involve more than one student. These rewards are, moreover, an ongoing part of the teacher's interactions with students rather than occasional events.

3. Curriculum-Related Behaviors. There is probably nothing more essential to using either the field sensitive or field independent teaching strategies successfully than starting a lesson with the appropriate emphasis. Lessons "pull" teachers toward teaching in a certain way. Part of a lesson plan, then, is what the lesson "plans" for the teacher. To give but one example, a teacher will be hard pressed to use the personal and instructional behaviors of the field sensitive teaching strategy when the lesson materials contain only graphs, charts, and formulas. Similarly, field independent students are likely to lose interest if a teacher starts a lesson with materials which mention how numbers feel about themselves and the things that happen to them. These problems can be avoided by asking, before a lesson begins, "Do these materials attract students' attention to humor, fantasy, and human features or do they attract attention to factual detail and analytical reasoning?"

After choosing materials for a lesson or activity, the teacher faces the task of getting the students ready to learn. We suggested earlier that different approaches should be used in introducing a

lesson to field sensitive and field independent children. Field sensitive children generally prefer to know from the start exactly what they will be doing. Performance objectives and main points are specified in advance, along with indications of the lesson's usefulness or personal relevance. Consider the following examples:

> Today we're going to learn how to measure the length of the paper houses we made yesterday. We will be using these rulers, which I want you to use in a special way. I'll show you how. When we get through, you will be able to tell me how many inches long your paper house is. There are a lot of different things here at school and at home you can measure. You can help your mother measure cloth when making clothes. You boys could help your father measure what he is making with wood or metal. You can also help me measure things. I have some pretty things in this bag that I need to have measured. After you know how, I'd like you to help me measure them.

Learning to Teach in Two Cognitive Styles

Matching the teaching style of the teacher to the learning style of the children is certainly one of the reasons for assessing teaching styles in teachers, but even more important is the planning of training programs to help teachers use both field-sensitive and field-independent strategies. With the teacher behavior observation instrument, one can determine which is the unfamiliar style and which specific behaviors in this style need development or practice. With this knowledge a training program can be planned to help a teacher use strategies associated with the unfamiliar style.

Conclusions

Competencies of teachers of Mexican-American children must be considered in relation to the introcultural diversity which exists in the culture. Teachers who teach in the field sensitive style are more likely to be successful with children of traditional communities. On the other hand, teachers who are field independent in their approach will undoubtedly experience more success with children of dualistic and atraditional communities. The ultimate objective, however, should be to encourage teachers to teach in both the field sensitive and field independent styles in order to promote imaginative development in all Mexican-American children.

We must not, however, lose sight of the competencies relating to inclusion of language and culture in the classroom which form part of the CMTS discussed earlier. Recent research by Ten Houten and his colleagues (1971) seems to indicate that culture and language may not only determine preference for cognitive style but also have an effect on whether a person will explore the unfamiliar style. The results of the research by Peal and Lambert (1962) also indicate that knowing two languages appears to encourage development of flexibility and diversity

in intellectual functioning. In our research (Ramirez and Castañeda, 1974) we have also observed that most Mexican-American children who are bicognitive can also communicate effectively in both English and Spanish. The families of these children appear to participate more widely in both the Mexican-American and mainstream American cultures. Bilingualism and biculturalism, thus, may be very closely linked to bicognitive functioning.

In concluding, we stress the importance of culturally democratic educational environments for promoting cognitive flexibility in Mexican-American children. Too often in the past American public education has favored development in only the field independent cognitive style. The one-sided concern of American public education has been especially unfair to children whose preferred cognitive style is field sensitive. They have been denied full opportunity to succeed in school, and, at the same time, to preserve ties with the communication styles, human relational styles and thinking styles of their home and communities. At the same time, field independent children have not been encouraged to diversify their own perspectives and skills.

Cognitive flexibility, as a goal of bilingual, bicultural education, has many advantages. One of these is enabling each child to retain and develop the cognitive style which was fostered in his unique home and community socialization experiences. Another advantage is equipping children to function effectively in diverse intellectual and social environments. A third advantage is familiarizing children (and adults) with the unfamiliar cognitive style as a means of promoting understanding of alternative values and life styles.

APPENDIX A

CULTURE-MATCHING TEACHING STRATEGIES

1. Personalize the curriculum: relate personal experiences and interests of the children and yourself to the curriculum. Use personalized rewards which make your relationship with the child closer: "I am proud of you," or "Now that you can read that book; we can both read it together."

   -Mention personal feelings, your own likes and dislikes, to the children from time to time.

   -Tell the children things about your own life, show them pictures of your family, have members of your family visit the school.

   -Take care to know things about the children: their favorite color or food, something they like doing or a visit they enjoy. Compliment them on their appearance, new clothes, etc. Above all, be sensitive to their home backgrounds.

   -Display photographs of the children in the classroom.

   -Lesson material should be related to personal experiences whenever possible: math stories can refer to local places; for instance, mention a local store instead of just saying "the store."

   -Relate feelings mentioned in stories to the children's own feelings.

2. Humanize the curriculum, especially when teaching math and science concepts. (Sesame Street is a useful source for ideas.) Include fantasy and humor in the curriculum. Use puppets and role-playing techniques.

   -Puppets and felt figure stories can be used for introducing math and science concepts.

   -Children's worksheets should include items depicting people, animals, faces, etc.

   -Encourage storytelling by telling stories frequently.

   -Dramatic situations should be devised in which the child acts as if he is in another situation.

   -Children should be encouraged to sympathize with each other and with people they hear about in stories ("How do you think Miguelito felt when. . .")

-Provide opportunities for the children to tell stories about pictures they draw or paint.

3. Encourage cooperative group work.

-Reward instances of helpfulness and consideration you see in the classroom with your approval. For instance, remark on how nice it is to see a child or children helping a new student.

-Assign tasks for small groups of children to do together. Friends can cooperate on doing worksheets, measuring, playing games, cleaning up or tidying, delivering messages. Murals and wall charts make good cooperative activities.

-Encourage a cooperative attitude about classroom behavior. Point out that good behavior reflects on everyone in the room, particularly on the playground or when there is a substitute teacher.

-Occasionally direct children to each other for help in their classroom work; for instance, they can ask each other how to spell words, how to read words, how to do expanded notations, etc.

4. Arrange the classroom so that it permits maximum adult-child contact.

-A classroom with learning centers permits some children to work alone, enabling the teacher to work with small groups or individual children.

-Make use of kidney-shaped tables, rugs, and other areas which increase contact with the children.

5. Be sensitive to the child's feelings, remembering that a child-centered approach, rather than a task-centered one, is more effective with most Mexican American children.

-Children's contributions should be accepted even if they occur at inopportune moments. If you cannot stop what you are doing to listen to a child, say politely that you will listen as soon as you have a moment, and then make sure that you do so.

-Children should be free to express their likes and dislikes about activities in the room. You should be able to say, "I know you don't like doing this, but I want you to do it for a little while. After this, we'll do something that you like." That is, the child might have to do something but he should not have to pretend he likes it when he doesn't.

-Make your feelings known to the children from time to time, your preferences, moods, etc.

-Be sensitive to emotional upsets the children may be experiencing and don't pressure them to perform as usual if you know of or sense some unusual situation.

-Take advantage of opportunities to communicate with individual children through meaningful looks, smiles, putting your arm around them.

-Provide opportunities for children to work right next to you, particularly when you are reading a story or being read to.

-When children are having a good laugh, do not feel reluctant to share in their laughter.

6. Implement cross-age teaching.

-Cross-age cooperation should be planned. Older children should be invited to the room. The children should invite younger children in from time to time, or go to younger classrooms to help. Older children should be used as cross-age tutors for a variety of activities, academic, P.E. games, and with puppet theater.

7. Use as much Spanish as possible in the classroom. Try to obtain Spanish as a Second Language materials for non-Spanish speaking children.

-Use Spanish informally throughout the school day for giving classroom directions, telling stories to Spanish speakers, etc. Use Spanish diminutives and ways of addressing children (Miguelito, hijo, niña) and repeat Spanish folk sayings.

-Address other adults in Spanish in order to show the children that the language has prestige among adults. Be particularly careful to address outside visitors who know Spanish in this language.

-The daily story should often be in Spanish or at least contain some Spanish words and phrases.

-The class should learn Spanish songs and rhymes.

-All concepts should be presented or reviewed in Spanish.

-Ask the children how to say things in Spanish. Spanish names should be pronounced correctly.

8. Most Mexican American children from traditional communities and children whose families have recently migrated from Mexico need some English as a Second Language Training.

   -Bilingual parents or older children can tutor small English as a Second Language groups or individual children.

   -English as a Second Language lessons should include review of concepts a child is learning in Spanish.

9. Introduce Mexican, Mexican American, and Spanish heritage materials and cultural activities into the curriculum.

   -Mention holidays that are celebrated by the local Mexican American community and hold appropriate celebrations in the classroom.

   -Bring Spanish language magazines, books, comics and newspapers into the room.

   -Be aware of celebrations that the children in the classroom will know about: confirmations, weddings, etc.

   -Mexican Americans who are prominent in public life--sports figures, people in government, artists--should be featured in lessons and bulletin board displays.

   -Members of the local community should be invited to the classroom.

   -Refer from time to time to the extended family.

   -No child, (Mexican American or non-Mexican American, should ever feel that his culture (or family) is not represented. Social studies units should cover topics from the heritage and cultural backgrounds of all the children.

10. Encourage parent involvement and achievement for the family.

    -Parents should be made to feel welcome in the classroom. Have a list of activities and lessons on hand that a visiting parent can conduct. Learn about individual parent's interests and talents so these can be added to classroom activities.

    -Make a point of personally inviting each parent to visit the classroom or participate in classroom activities. (At the same time, care should be taken that a parent who is unable to visit due to work, small children at home, etc., does not feel that he or she is being "pressured".)

    -Send messages to the child's family and, when possible,

speak with his parents, expressing pleasure at his achievements.

-Remind the child how proud his family will be that he can read, add, subtract, etc.

-When talking about when the child grows up, mention the child's family; for instance, ask the child how his mother will feel when he graduates or mention how pleased the family will be when the child is big enough to drive them in the car.

-Send children's papers home frequently, reminding the child how pleased his mother will be to see it. A brief note should be added to the work if possible.

-Make every effort to meet families personally, and take any opportunity to express appreciation of what the families do for their children.

-Make wall displays out of materials that children have worked on at home with their parents. The teacher can also send work home (such as drawings) and sometimes ask the children to bring it back so that she can put it up on the wall.

APPENDIX B

Field Sensitive Teaching	Field Independent Teaching
1. openly warm and affectionate	1. formal and serious
2. social rewards used to strengthen personal ties and group spirit	2. non-social rewards given in recognition of individual achievement
3. lessons prefaced with supportive assurances from teacher and detailed overview of objectives	3. lessons prefaced with factual information and reminders of individual effort
4. problem solving strategies modeled by teacher who then stresses application of general rules to particular problems	4. solutions to problems often left to imagination of students who use teacher more as a resource person than model
5. students' attention drawn to generalization and global characteristics ("the big picture")	5. students' attention directed to individual elements and ways of combining these to reach conclusions and generalizations
6. curriculum is humanized and adapted to students' personal experiences	6. curriculum focuses on factual details, often making reference to formulas, graphs and tables

APPENDIX C

CHILD RATING FORM
FIELD INDEPENDENT OBSERVABLE BEHAVIORS

Instructions: Evaluate the child for each behavior listed below by placing a check in the appropriate column.

Child's Name _____ Grade _____ School _____ Date _____

Observer's Name _____

Situation (e.g., "Math lesson"); for general or overall rating, write "Global" _____

FIELD INDEPENDENT OBSERVABLE BEHAVIORS	FREQUENCY				
	NOT TRUE	SELDOM TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE
RELATIONSHIP TO PEERS					
1. Prefers to work independently					
2. Likes to compete and gain individual recognition					
3. Task oriented: is inattentive to social environment when working					
PERSONAL RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER					
1. Rarely seeks physical contact with teacher					
2. Formal: interactions with teacher are restricted to tasks at hand					
INSTRUCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER					
1. Likes to try new tasks without teacher's help					
2. Impatient to begin tasks; likes to finish first					
3. Seeks non-social rewards					
CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRICULUM WHICH FACILITATE LEARNING					
1. Details of concepts are emphasized: parts have meaning of their own					
2. Deals with math and science concepts					
3. Based on discovery approach					

CHILD RATING FORM
FIELD SENSITIVE OBSERVABLE BEHAVIORS

Instructions: Evaluate the child for each behavior listed below by placing a check in the appropriate column.

Child's Name _____ Grade _____ School _____ Date _____

Observer's Name _____

Situation (e.g., "Math lesson"); for general or overall rating, write "Global" _____

FIELD SENSITIVE OBSERVABLE BEHAVIORS	FREQUENCY				
	NOT TRUE	SELDOM TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE
RELATIONSHIP TO PEERS					
1. Likes to work with others to achieve a common goal					
2. Likes to assist others					
3. Is sensitive to feelings and opinions of others					
PERSONAL RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER					
1. Openly expresses positive feelings for teacher					
2. Asks questions about teacher's tastes and personal experiences; seeks to become like teacher					
INSTRUCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHER					
1. Seeks guidance and demonstration from teacher					
2. Seeks rewards which strengthen relationship with teacher					
3. Is highly motivated when working individually with teacher					
CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRICULUM WHICH FACILITATE LEARNING					
1. Performance objectives and global aspects of curriculum are carefully explained					
2. Concepts are presented in humanized or story format					
3. Concepts are related to personal interests and experiences of children					

FIELD SENSITIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT

Indicate the frequency with which each teaching behavior occurs by placing a check in the appropriate column.

Teacher's Name _____ Grade _____ School _____ Date _____

Teaching Situation _____ Observer's Name _____

Teacher's intended teaching style (if applicable) _____

FIELD SENSITIVE TEACHING BEHAVIORS	FREQUENCY				
	NOT TRUE	SELDOM TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE
PERSONAL BEHAVIORS					
1. Displays physical and verbal expressions of approval and warmth					
2. Uses personalized rewards which strengthen the relationship with students					
INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIORS					
1. Expresses confidence in child's ability to succeed					
2. Gives guidance to students: makes purpose and main principles of lesson obvious to students					
3. Encourages learning through modeling: asks children to imitate					
4. Encourages cooperation and development of group feeling					
5. Holds informal class discussions relating concepts to students' experiences					
CURRICULUM RELATED BEHAVIORS					
1. Emphasizes global aspects of concepts: clearly explains performance objectives					
2. Personalizes curriculum					
3. Humanizes curriculum					
4. Uses teaching materials to elicit expression of feelings from students					

Appendix C - Cont.

FIELD INDEPENDENT TEACHING STRATEGIES OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT

Indicate the frequency with which each teaching behavior occurs by placing a check in the appropriate column.

Teacher's Name _____ Grade _____ School _____ Date _____

Teaching Situation _____ Observer's Name _____

Teacher's intended teaching style (if applicable) _____

FIELD INDEPENDENT TEACHING BEHAVIORS	FREQUENCY				
	NOT TRUE	SELDOM TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	OFTEN TRUE	ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE
PERSONAL BEHAVIORS					
1 Maintains formal relationships with students					
2 Centers attention on instructional objectives; gives social atmosphere secondary importance					
INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIORS					
1. Encourages independent student achievement					
2 Encourages competition between students					
3 Adopts a consultant role					
4 Encourages trial and error learning					
5 Encourages task orientation					
CURRICULUM RELATED BEHAVIORS					
1 Focuses on details of curriculum material					
2 Focuses on facts and principles encourages using novel approaches to problem solving					
3 Relies on graphs, charts and formulas					
4 Emphasizes inductive learning and discovery approach					

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Towards a Clarification of the Nature and Role of Culture-Based Curricula and Cultural Context Teaching in Educational Programs for Chicano Children and the Formulation of Competency Statements for Child Development Personnel

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Paper presented for deliberation by the Content Specialists
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Chicago, Illinois
September 13 - 14, 1974

ETHNOCENTRISM - POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ASPECTS

In the process of socialization and enculturation the child is led naturally to become healthily ethnocentric. He/she learns that the cultural values and practices of his family, his community, and his ethnic group are both satisfying and satisfactory. Growing up in a uni-cultural environment where all his/her needs are fully met, the child has no reason to reject, mistrust, doubt, or feel insecure about his cultural identification. This feeling of pride and comfort in one's cultrual milieu is a positive phenomenon conducive to effective development. It provides the child with attitudinal and perspective referents which guide his development by serving as the foundation on which new experiences and learnings are grounded.

All children whether they be majority or minority group members share this need to be culture-bound in their early development. Thus, ethnocentrism per se, is not detrimental to actualization of human potential. The converse is in fact true: it is a necessary and indispensable ingredient in the socialization and enculturation processes. Furthermore, it also appears to be an element necessary to cognitive development as has been shown by Jean Piaget (1955) in his analysis of the personal analog, egocentrism. (See also Wadsworth, 1971)

There are however, two negative phenomena having their roots in childhood ethnocentrism which should be carefully noted at this point. One is the prolongation of ethnocentric behavior into adulthood and its subsequent transformation into ethno-imperialism; an over-zealous form of adult ethnocentrism in which a person systematically undervalues or diminishes the worth of cultural identity systems other than his/her own.

It is this latter behavior which most concerns the educational institutions for it is the basis for the manifestations of prejudice which have been identified by such researchers as Gordon Allport (1958), namely:

1. Antilocution. . . people who have prejudices talk about them. With like-minded friends, occasionally with strangers, they may express their antagonism freely. . . many people never go beyond this mild degree of antipathectic action.

2. Avoidance. If the prejudice is more intense, it leads the individual to avoid members of the disliked group even perhaps at the cost of considerable inconvenience. In this case, the bearer of prejudice does not directly inflict harm upon the group he dislikes. He takes the burden of accomodation and withdrawal entirely upon himself.

3. Discrimination. Here the prejudiced person makes detrimental distinctions of an active sort. He undertakes to exclude members of the group in question from certain types of employment, from residential housing, political rights, educational or recreational opportunities, churches, hospitals, or from some other social privileges.

And in its more advanced and malignant forms:

4. Physical attack. Under conditions of heightened emotion, prejudice may lead to acts of physical violence or semiviolence. An unwanted Negro family may be forcibly ejected from a neighborhood, or so severely threatened that it leaves in fear. Gravestones in Jewish cemeteries may be desecrated. The Northside's Italian gang may lie in wait for the Southside's Irish gang.

5. Extermination. Lynchings, pogroms, massacres, and the Hitlerian program of genocide mark the ultimate degree of violent expression of prejudice. (Allport, 1958)

Our examination of the issue of cultural exclusion in curriculum reveals a form of prejudice more subtle in nature than those noted above; an expression of prejudice which is decidely more germane to the school setting than are some of those noted by Allport. Thus, rather than using antilocution as the first indication of prejudice, this study suggests that inattention is a more logical antecedent stage:

6. Inattention. Exclusion of the cultural and life-style symbols of a given group as an expression of a perceived lack of importance, an insufficience, or a need to subordinate that culture and life-style to those of another group.

When inattention is added to Allport's scheme of prejudice it becomes clear that the attitudes and practices of which it is an omen are essentially synonymous with racism. Racism may be defined as:

> . . . any attitude, action, (or lack of action), or institutional structure, practice or tendency, which subordinates or excludes a person or group because of his color or because of linguistic or cultural atypicalness as perceived by the dominant society. Even though "race" and "color" refer to two specific kinds of human characteristics, in America it is not only the visibility of skin color but also the audibility of language difference, or the distinctness of cultural practices, that mark individuals as "targets" for subordination or exclusion by members of the white majority.

Although a comprehensive examination of the nature and cause of racism is not incumbent to our present purposes, an additional word

appears necessary at this point.

On another occasion this writer spoke to the conceptualization of racism from a theoretical viewpoint. An excerpt from that address will serve to outline enough of that thought to undergird the generalizations which are to follow:

> My formula for racism says that it is born out of two sets of traits or characteristics. One of these sets is composed of two inherent needs of the human organism and the other set is acquired.
>
> Of the two inherent traits one is the need that the organism has for stability in the organism itself and the groups to which it belongs. This fact has been substantiated by much research in psychology. . . The other trait is the need for identity which all humans share whether they be Anglo, Chicano, Russian or whatever. These two inherent traits when combined with some acquired traits produce ethnocentrism and there is but a short step from that to racism.
>
> The acquired characteristics which I feel influence racism are (1) the economic status of the group in relation to other groups, (2) its political power in relation to that of other groups, (3) its education level (scholarship index), and of course, (4) the relative size of the group.
>
> In a nutshell we can say that given Anglo America's need for stability and identity, given her superiority in numbers, given her political control of institutions and governments, her economic power and her educational achievements; given that, any (counter movement that seeks to share those advantages) is going to elicit a defensive reaction because. . . it threatens the status quo. It threatens control of power, control of wealth and control of education. (And the collective state of mind of the dominant group is such that it will tend to regard that as an unwarranted territorial intrusion.) (González, 1973a)

By proceeding from this construct it is possible to understand more clearly the second negative effect which can be traced to the notion of ethnocentricity. In the preceding chapter this effect was characterized as the creation of psychic conflict between two or more identity systems operating within the same organism. In difference to the traditional view of culture shock in acculturation the socio-psychological approach offers an insight which has for the most part been missing from many anthropological and sociological studies.

It is not as some claim the mere existence and complexity of cultural options and alternatives which causes the child to become confused as to what he/she is. In many societies children are born and raised into multi-ethnic multi-lingual settings with no apparent ill effects. It is more likely that the anomie which results out of enculturation truncated by acculturation is due to the child reaching the conclusion that he is a member of an inferior and inefficient rather than a merely distinct group.

This anomie or psychological marginality does not simply happen to a child by virtue of being born and raised in a dual-cultured environment. It is in fact caused and maintained by extrinsic forces which possess the ability and resources to control its intensity and indeed its very existence. This is perhaps the key point which in their quest for descriptive scientificity has eluded the social science students of minority group cultures in the U.S.

Before proceeding it is important to examine the factors which may lead a young child to arrive at such a feeling of inferiority, insecurity or subordination. Once this is done it will then become possible to suggest how the schools' curricula might be restructured in content to alleviate this condition and its root causes.

As previously noted the developing organism requires an environment which is somewhat stable. It also requires a strong sense of identity and security. In many instances however, the minority child has his/her identity, stability and security threatened by the societal climate in which he/she lives.

During childhood the child is first of all a member of groups. Family, community, ethnic group, social class, and language group are, of course, the most obvious. Identity, stability and security are thus group-bound as well as being culture-bound. Whatever happens to his/her group also happens to the individual.

As the minority child develops he/she is increasingly able to see a particular pattern of circumstances emerge. First, he/she realizes that his "identity group" is small and that there is a larger group that speaks, eats, plays, sings, and often even looks different from his own. Out of this comes an inhibition which is mainly numerical: "there are fewer of us than there are of them; we are smaller." From a child's perspective this is a foreboding thought. He/she is in the process of growing out of "small" and into "big." Also, he/she is developing largely by association; by seeing him/herself reflected in adults whom he/she can later emulate. Thus, even the cold laws of mathematics do not favor him. He/she has fewer models, fewer choices of like adults with whom to associate.

Secondly, there is often in the U.S. a disparity between majority and minority groups in terms of their relative economic status. To a child the visible trappings of affluence do not go unnoticed. Clothes, bikes, little league uniforms, parents' cars, travel, and September

reports on "What I did this summer" all contribute to an amalgam which leads to only one possible conclusion: the other group is not only bigger, it also has more and does more.

Even political power is apparent to a young child. The school calendar for example is "governed" by holidays and observances based on a particular group's history and heritage. During the first semester in school the child hears for the first time of the Pilgrims who "first settled our country" and subsequently of Lincoln and Washington and other political figures unrelated to his/her own history. Within the school building itself a majority of the faculty, administrators, and other visitors to the classroom are usually non-Chicanos. Little wonder that the young Chicano should feel that his cultural system and its personalities are less than adequate in the adult world into which he is in the process of growing.

In a setting which is engaged in the business of formal learnings, the Chicano child sees few culturally similar figures who can bear witness to the wisdom of diligent pursuit of learning. This is true also outside of the school. Churches, offices, stores and hospitals all have in them fewer Chicanos in proportion to their numbers in the community. All of these data are stored in the child's mind and function as baselines of information on which to formulate future thoughts, aspirations, emotions and actions.

In short, the only logical conclusion that a child can draw from all of this is that the other group is not only bigger, it also does more and has more; therefore it must be better.

An in-depth analysis of the effects of psychic conflicts created by growing up under such circumstances is not possible here although some general categories of these are cited (Allport, 1958), to illustrate the breadth of consequences which may result:

- ego defenses
- denial of membership (to others)
- clowning
- slyness or cunning
- aggression against own group
- neuroticism
- the self-fulfilling prophecy
- symbolic status striving
- obsessive concern
- withdrawal and passivity
- strengthening in-group ties
- identification with dominant group; self-hate
- prejudice against out-groups
- sympathy
- fighting back; militancy
- enhanced striving

It is acknowledged that in some instances--sympathy, militancy, striving, etc.--there may be positive as well as negative effects born out of ethnic-group victimization. In most cases however, the effects are clearly negative as may be readily seen in the above listing.

It should be noted also that in all probability racism does not originate with the formal curricula of the schools, although as yet few efforts have been made to combat racism through the avenues opened by this instrument of the schools. Indeed as has already been pointed out, the schools often aggravate the problem unnecessarily by their lack of attention to this issue.

A recent study conducted in the Edgewood School District in San Antonio (Texas) illustrates the depth of the problem and points up the potential for school intervention in ameliorating it. (SWEDL, 1970) This research revealed that three-year old Chicano children living in poverty in an urban barrio when tested with a non-verbal intelligence measure showed they had capacities equal to those of their Anglo counterparts. The same children were tested again at age four and again at age five. On these administrations the mean scores were 80 and 70 respectively. Thus even prior to entering school the children's ability to perform on an intelligence test was on the decline; a clear indication that negative social forces were at work.

A two-part hypothesis can be drawn from these findings:

1. The age span involved (3 to 5 years), is a highly sensitive developmental period.

2. Although the children were as yet not exposed to or participating in a formal program of schooling they were however, old enough to experience the "conflict of ethnocentric systems" alluded to above.

In a similar vein, this author had the experience of teaching for two years at the high school level in a small town on the Texas-Mexican border. Although no formal study was conducted, a curious phenomenon was noted and corroborated by other teachers in that school.

A small percentage of the students in that high school were Mexican nationals who had been born, raised and had attended elementary school in Mexico. Upon reaching high school age they enrolled in the American high school and commuted there from their homes in Mexico. Socio-economically, these students had all of the characteristics of being "disadvantaged":

- They spoke little or no English.
- They were extremely poor, often living in earth-floor jacales.
- They had not had books, educational toys or television in their homes.
- Their parents were for the most part functionally illiterate.
- They had been raised in a cultural setting which according to traditional anthropological studies has a number of traits which are not conducive to success in school.

In comparison to native (American) born Chicanos attending the same school, the Mexican nationals were economically more disadvantaged to a degree which was obvious. Two differences however were noteworthy. First, they had not experienced a conflict of ethnocentric systems in childhood since they were raised outside of the WASP culture's sphere of influence. Secondly, their elementary schooling was based on the cultural system of the home rather than on that of a different socio-cultural group. Consequently, upon entering into the alien and unfamiliar world of an American high school in adolescence, they were able to compete and perform satisfactorily with their Anglo counterparts after only a brief period of adjustment. In many cases such indicators as grades, attendance, attentiveness and classroom diligence were noticeably more adaptive than those of their Chicano classmates.

By implication the above examples seem to support the notion of conflicting ethnocentric systems although obviously, much greater and better controlled data gathering is indicated before any hard conclusions may be drawn.

It may be hypothesized, however, that the following factors contribute to improve a child's resistance to the racism inherent in mono-cultural schooling:

1. Childhood enculturation and socialization and acquisition of an ethnocentric foundation in one culture, i.e., without the simultaneous pressures of acculturation.

2. Early school experiences which offer socio-cultural continuity to pre-school developmental experiences.

For the Chicano child the first of these aspects is satisfied only partially. The second prerequisite is almost always not present.

It should be acknowledged, too, that since much of socialization and enculturation occurs prior to the child's entry into school, a culturally democratic climate cannot be seen as being the responsibility of the schools acting alone. It is nevertheless true that due to the strong influence that schooling has on the American child, it would be counter-productive to establish a dichotomy between the strategies required for bringing about cultural pluralism in and out of the school setting. Inescapably, the task must be seen as one for the society at large, with the schools contributing their particular resources and skills to the promotion of a culturally pluralistic philosophy and practice.

As the agency of society which is most concerned with cultural transmission and the preparation of the young for adulthood, the educational system is in the most favorable position to proffer remedies against racism. By virtue of its great influence on youth it may be rightfully seen also as having the greatest responsibility for doing so.

Goals for Culture-Based Curricula and Cultural Context Teaching: A Synthesis

Allport (1958) has pointed out that although prejudice has its roots in prejudgment, there is a distinction which is more than semantic between the two concepts.

> If a person is capable of rectifying his erroneous judgments in the light of new evidence his is not prejudiced. Prejudgments become prejudice only if they are not reversible when exposed to new knowledge. (Allport, 1958)

It is this assumption--the reversibility and hopefully the prevention of prejudice--which offers the anti-racism, anti-prejudicial reason for culture-based curricula. We can assume that the "new evidence" which schools might provide will be reflected mostly in the curricular content on minority groups and in the educational goals and objectives which guide instruction.

Out of the developmental and sociological perspectives presented here it is possible to formulate an exemplary goal-statement which addresses the requirements of the minority student as an individual, his needs as a member of an ethnic group in dynamic interaction with other groups, and the needs of the general society in which he/she lives.

In the context of the foregoing, that goal may be stated as being the development and maintenance in the child of the ability (cognitive skills), and the willingness (positive feelings of self), to enable him/her to:

- Understand and appreciate his/her history and heritage.[1]
- Value the worth of his/her ethnic group in his/her community and in the larger national and international communities.
- Understand him/herself and value his/her own personal worth and dignity as a functioning member of the society in which he/she lives, i.e., to have confidence in him/herself.

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[1] In formulating these goals I am indebted to a similar effort undertaken at the Dayton (Ohio) Community School Council under the direction of Dr. Arthur E. Thomas. Parts of the goal statement are adaptations of that work which was directed at objectifying a "Profile of the New Black Student." See Community School Council (1971).

- Allow him/herself the opportunity of choice in the acquisition and expression of cultural values and practices basing his/her decisions on knowledge and understanding of cultural options which are available and on his/her own self-determined needs and preferences.

- Have familiarity with and appreciate the history and culture of other oppressed minorities and work towards removing barriers to advancement of his own and other groups.

- Understand the need for respecting cultural differences with an awareness of how race, environment, ethnicity and social class shape the behavior of those around him.

- Develop a familiarity with and an appreciation for cultural diversity and participate actively in propagating the concept of cultural pluralism.

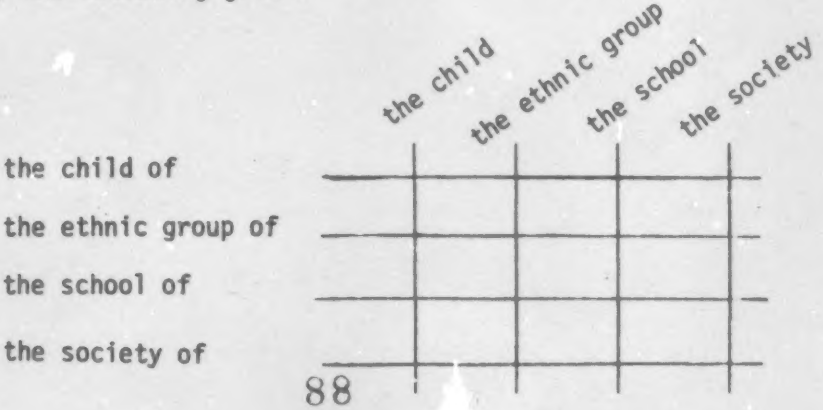
A body of curricular content which will give instructional substance to these goals is clearly called for. Cultural content cannot be drawn from anthropological/sociological studies which purport to describe the culture of an entire minority group; Chicano, Black, American Indian, Puerto Rican, etc. An alternative conclusion is that the "content" of culture must be determined in accordance with the individual and societal needs for adequate development and socialization. In its most basic form the issue is one of personal and societal perceptions which will engender behavior which is productive, adaptive, and coping. As Cárdenas and Cárdenas (1973) have pointed out in their "Theory of Incompatibilities," in order for schools to become compatible with the needs of minority students it is essential that there be a positive gamut of perceptions between all of the participants involved in the schooling process, e.g.,

- the child of him/herself

- the school of the child

- the parents of the school and the child

The total range of positive self-others perceptions may be illustrated by the following grid



wherein all points of intersection indicate a focal point of perceptions which influence the behavior and expectations of one or more parties. From a curricular content perspective it becomes essential that adequate and factual information be provided with which the child can apply "new knowledge" to avoid or reverse a prejudgment which he/she may have made at any one of these points or which may have been made about him. The same obviously is true of the other participants although admittedly, the curricular content of the elementary school may affect them to a lesser degree.[2]

A New Look at Culture[3]

Having determined that a culture or ethnic identity system is an integral part of the child's developmental and social frame of reference, and that it plays an important role in facilitating learning, it becomes

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[2]This highlights again the need for a broader approach which reaches the other participants and institutions involved in schooling such as teacher training colleges, state education agencies, legislatures, etc.

[3]In the design of this schema of culture I have followed the pattern set by Inkeles (1958, 1959, 1963, 1966), in his development of an accounting scheme for personality study. The obvious parallels between his scheme and mine are of more than passing interest. Indeed even a cursory comparison of the two is remindful of Spiro's (1951, 1953, 1961a, 1961b) admonition that studies of culture and personality are inseparable and perhaps should be considered as one and the same thing.

Inkeles' Accounting Scheme for Personality Study

Psychomotor System	(Temperament (Aptitude (Skills
Idea System	(Information (Opinions and Attitudes (Values
Motivational System	(Values (Motives and Needs
Relational System	(Orientation to Authority Figures (Orientation to Intimates and Peers (Orientation to Collectivities
Self System	(Conceptions of Self (Modes of Defense (Modes of Moral Functioning
Modes of Functioning	(Cognitive Modes (Affective Modes (Conative Modes

necessary to re-examine the concept of culture in that light and relate its elements to the goals which have evolved in the study.

By reviewing the multiple "arenas" in which a child develops as a cultural being and grouping specific value and practice patterns within these, the panorama of content for cultural context teaching and culture-based curricula emerges as depicted in Figures 1a to 1f.

Figure 1a

Cultural category: The "formal" culture--

". . . products of artistic endeavor, achievements of intellectual and artistic genius, deeds of heroic valor and concepts of lofty spirit. . . modes of significant thought. . . racial or ethnic vigor. . ."*

Sources of curricular content: Areas of the Child's history, heritage and contemporary ethnic experience which have to do with:

- literary landmarks
- the contents of museums
- music of ancestral group(s)
- art
- dance
- holidays and parades

* The categories of "formal" and "deep" culture are adapted from Nelson Brooks, "Culture and Language Instruction," (1966).

Figure 1b

Cultural category: The "deep" culture--

"the thoughts and actions, the concerns and hopes and worries, the personal values, the minor vanities and the half-serious superstitions, the subtle gradations of interpersonal relationships as expressed in actions and words, the day-by-day details of life as it is lived" by the group today or as it was lived in previous generations.

Sources of curricular content: Areas of the child's history, heritage and/or contemporary ethnic experience which have to do with:

- family ties and relationships
- friendships
- pride and self respect
- dictates of conscience
- milestones in personal life: birthdays, weddings, funerals, etc.

Figure 1c

Cultural category: Situational culture--

the life struggles, successes and failures of present-day members of the child's ethnic group as they seek human fulfillment in dynamic interaction with members of other cultural groups with whom they co-inhabit the land.

Sources of curricular content: Areas of the child's contemporary ethnic experience and history which have to do with:

- inter- and intra-group relations
- dealing with racism
- power: its manifestations, acquisition, and usage
- well-known contemporary personalities
- social change awareness and recognition of work of change agents
- physical similarities and differences and how these affect perceptions
- diet: nutrition and the rituals that accompany it
- politics
- minority group self-determination

Figure 1d

Cultural category: Language and communications--

the communicative legacies of ancestral group(s) both for information and recreational purposes. Also, the idiosyncrasies of speech and nonverbal communications, which may differ from those of other groups enough to cause mis-communications, embarrassment or disapproval.

Sources of curricular content: Areas of the child's history, heritage and/or contemporary ethnic experience which have to do with:

- his/her preferred manner of speaking
- origins of language and/or elements of it
- people and place names
- gestures or postures of:

  welcome or hostility,
  approval or disapproval,
  affection or anger,
  courtesy or rudeness,
  inquiry or lack of understanding

- reflections of cultural sensitivity to curricular lexicon
- games and other forms of entertainment

Figure 1e

Cultural category: Humanistic values--

subtle differences in which values similar to those of white America may be expressed as a consequence of Spanish, mestizo or creole, or contemporary ethnic group influences.

Sources of curricular content: Ethnic literature, art and music, theatre, etc., which expresses contemporary views of the group as concerns:

- humor
- kindness
- justice
- competition
- cooperation
- unselfishness
- leadership
- etc.

Figure 1f

Cultural category: Miscellaneous other historical and heritage topics--

The men and women of yesterday; their ideas, actions, aspirations and accomplishments and how these bear on the present-day life of members of the same ethnic group(s) and those with whom they interact.

Sources of curricular content: Areas of the child's history and heritage which have to do with:

- historical (political, literary, artistic, scholarly, etc.) personalities
- contributions of his/her ancestry in evidence in contemporary American life
- geography and its effects on history of ancestral groups
- origins of proper and surnames
- origins and development of other cross-cultural areas in which members of his/her ethnic group participated

In difference to the descriptive approach to culture followed in most anthropological studies, the cultural categories which are suggested here may be more accurately described as an accounting scheme in that they seek to account for those elements of culture which have a direct bearing on child development. Thus, rather than attempting to list items which might characterize Chicano culture(s), what is given is an accounting model which (1) is based on the child's developmental needs and (2) can be used to generate curricular content. By surveying a given community, school district or a school attendance zone, it is possible through the use of this scheme of cultural categories to determine particular values and practices with accuracy and avoid the danger of over-generalization and stereotyping which has plagued other methods of field research.

The process for conducting a cultural survey is itself outside of the scope of this study. For an exemplary attempt of this type the reader is referred to Gonzales' (1974) description of the design and administration of a Cultural Inventory Instrument. For a deeper conceptual treatment and an analysis of the implications of this type of objectivization the works of Paolo Freire (1970a, 1970b), are of particular relevance.

It should be stressed also that this model of culture and its recommended usage will not in and of itself produce a curriculum which is culturally pluralistic in its fullest sense in that it will not fully meet the needs of all of the students usually present in a culturally heterogeneous classroom. For that to occur it would be necessary, first, that the curriculum based on Chicano culture be available for study by all other groups in the same community. Likewise, a similar effort on behalf of all other ethnic groups represented in the school would be called for. The job would be essentially one-half complete if a minority group learns more about itself while other groups continue to form impressions, perceptions, and behaviors based on a continued dirge of information about its neighbors.

Nor is this (or any other) conception of culture sufficient to ensure that the totality of interactions which constitute schooling will be maximally responsive to minorities. As Cárdenas and Cárdenas (1973) have pointed out, the incompatibilities which presently exist between the schools and the learner are multiple, interrelated and interdependent. Thus, not only culture and language but also economic level(s), mobility (stability), and societal perceptions play important roles. These in turn are reflected in such school themes as philosophy, governance, goals and objectives, scope and sequence, staffing patterns, non-instructional needs and others to further complicate the picture. These authors have pointed out that in all there are some "sixty areas of incompatibility to which the institution must be sensitive." (Cárdenas and Cárdenas, 1973)

Clearly, in a study of this type, most of these are not dealt with to a great depth since our objective has been limited to the development

of a rationale for a particular focus on curricular content. A total and comprehensive treatise would have to encompass the needs, resources and instrumentalities of other constituencies of education. It would also have to consider the multiple impediments which inhibit the progress of educational change in general and address strategies necessary to overcome these.

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REPORT ON THE CDAC ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

Submitted to: Dr. Gustavo Gonzalez

Submitted by: Resource Development Institute, Inc.

September 16, 1974

I. INTRODUCTION

This report contains an analysis of the instruments developed for use in assessing competencies of teacher/trainees involved in the education of 3-5 year old Chicanitos. Also, specific recommendations are made with respect to projected use or extended development of the assessment instrumentation.

The review and analysis of the instrumentation developed to date focuses on the following major items:

- o Validity
- o Format
- o Comprehensiveness of the instrumentation
- o Alternative assessment strategies
- o Research or empirical basis of assessment strategies

II. INSTRUMENTATION

Context: the instrument, developed by Max Castillo at the University of Houston, represents an excellent attempt to provide a systematic structure for assessing specific teacher competencies. The instrument, developed as a direct result of a prior contract with CDAC, can be considered to be in a design-test stage; that is, the level of funding for instrument development has not permitted the developers to implement on-site or field test activities. These field test activities would provide a basis for the refinement and revision of the existing instrumentation.

Structure: Although there are several sub-scales reflected in the assessment instrumentation, the two basic elements are a self-assessment instrument administered on the basis of the Q-sort technique and the other is an assessment of teacher competencies administered on the basis of observations conducted by a supervisor, staff development specialist, or project director.

Content: the items found in the instrumentation refer to those competencies--both general and some rather specific--referenced to the six general categories developed by CDAC. The specific behaviors relate directly to those competencies expected of bilingual bicultural project teachers. The general areas are:

- o Verbal and interactional behaviors
- o Curricular activities which build the child's self-concept, and
- o Community involvement

These specific behaviors relating to bilingual bicultural education are based on work by Cruz and Castillo. (See Forthcoming article and supporting documentation "Special Competencies for Teachers of Pre-School Chicano Children: Rationale, Content, and Assessment Process.")

III. ANALYSIS

The review and analysis of the assessment instrument includes discussion on the major items listed in the introductory section of this report. While some of the discussion may seem evaluative, the intent is not to pass judgment on the instrument; rather, it is our purpose to promote the consideration of alternatives which will serve to enhance the usefulness and comprehensiveness of the assessment process.

Validity: the measure of validity, at least that of content or face validity, imposed on the instrumentation indicates that this instrumentation does measure competencies desired of CDAC; however, the problem is that, as additional competencies are generated or those already in use undergo refinement, then these should be incorporated in revised assessment instruments. Failure to do so will affect not only the validity of the instrumentation, but will affect the usefulness of the assessment process for determining training needs.

As the present project develops additional competencies, e. g., in the area of language and culture referrents, for consideration in the training of teachers of Mexican American children, the assessment process and instrumentation must incorporate these specific behaviors in order to provide an updated assessment instrument.

The sophisticated format of structure of the instrumentation allows for the use of multiple approaches to data gathering: self-assessment plus the use of observational techniques. However, the well thought-out structure might appear to be too complex for most users in the field. Rather than sacrificing the multiple approaches to data gathering, the developers might consider the use of a "User's Guide" or a series of training sessions on the assessment process, its objectives and uses.

In addition to the well-thought-out procedure on data gathering, the items found in the instrumentation represent a comprehensive approach to assessment. This comprehensiveness is demonstrated in the fact that items correspond to both general competencies and those specific of bilingual bicultural project teachers.

The only apparent weakness of the assessment instrument is in the absence of empirical validation data; that is, the development process used in producing the instrument has been systematic. However, procedures for determining validity and reliability coefficients have not been implemented. Of course, this could occur only if the instrumentation had been exposed to a reasonable pilot test phase immediately after

its development. Extending the development phase of the instrument would allow for the implementation of tightly controlled research design which would then enable the developer to derive reliability and validity coefficients. This pilot testing phase would also assist the developers and funding agency in providing a more useful and comprehensive instrument for all potential users. Also, this study would allow for the development of a user's manual or guide which would accompany the assessment instrumentation. This guide will describe procedures for instrument administration, scoring, and for delineating training needs derived from data collected of trainees or teachers.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following listing represents key or major aspects about the assessment process which might be considered in the event that an extended development of instrumentation is proposed and implemented.

- Implement an extended development of instrumentation, e.g., pilot or field testing, to include multiple sites and a sample of teacher/trainees stratified according to ethnicity and years of experience in working with Mexican American children.

- Explore possibilities, feasibility, etc. of developing present instrumentation into a set or battery of instruments, each specific instrument corresponding to levels of competency, domain, or categories of behaviors being assessed. A battery of instruments allows the user to employ a particular instrument at one point in time without becoming confused by a thick document of various instruments.

- Include in the pilot testing phase a research design for establishing validity and reliability coefficients of the various instruments in use.

- Cross reference the various competency statements or behaviors contained in the assessment process to specific training or behavior objectives found in the training curriculum. This facilitates the use of the assessment instrument as a criterion reference tool which can be easily traced back to training needs or staff development activities.

- Finalize a "User's Manual" or guide which includes a description of the role assessment procedures play in developing competencies for individual teachers; this manual would also describe the procedures for administration, scoring and planning of individual skills development strategies.

APPENDIX D

The Castillo-Castillo instrument included here is a revised version of an earlier test developed for CDAC. It is not reproduced in its entirety. It is meant to serve only as an illustration of what an assessment process for Chicano-related competencies might look like. Persons interested in obtaining the entire instrument are asked to contact Mr. Max Castillo at the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Houston.

INTEGRATED COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT SCALE
And
Q-SORT SELF-ASSESSMENT SCALE

AN ASSESSMENT OF SPECIFIC COMPETENCIES AND SKILLS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER SELF-ANALYSIS.

Max S. Castillo
And
Ana M. Castillo

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REVISED: DECEMBER, 1975

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REVISED: DECEMBER, 1975

Preface

The Integrated Competency Assessment Scale (ICAS) delineates a series of specific competencies under each of the six major areas of competencies as identified by the Child Development Associate Consortium. These are: (1) Physical and Intellectual Competence, (2) Physical Environment, (3) Building the Positive Self-Concept, (4) Sustaining the Positive Functioning of Children and Adults in a Group, (5) Bring About Coordination of Home and Center, and (6) Carry Out Supplementary Responsibilities Related to the Children's Program.

The Instrument also includes, as a supplement, competencies unique to teachers of Spanish-Speaking Mexican-American children which focuses primarily in three areas: (1) Verbal and Interactional Behaviors, (2) Building the Positive Self-Concept, and (3) Parental Involvement. The Instrument therefore specifies the behaviors that the teacher in training should exhibit when working within the context of the teaching/learning process in an early childhood setting.

The competencies specified in the Instrument are coded and cross-referenced to a second instrument, a self-assessment Q-Sort technique. The Q-Sort provides for the teacher in training an opportunity to rate himself-herself on each competency according to the extent to which the person performs that specific behavior.

On a series of profiles results are plotted. These profiles help determine whether a candidate has attained the stated

competencies and reveal specific areas of weakness that can be improved by the candidate with advise and help. In this manner the trainee knows "where he is" in the training cycle, and what direction he needs to go or "where he ought to be" to achieve professional competence.

The scoring system for the Q-Sort is compatible with the process used in the ICAS.

The Integrated Competency Assessment Scale therefore can accomplish the following:

(1) It establishes a data base for identifying unmet competencies and underlying problems in the training plan which prevents the meeting of the specific competencies or the effective utilization of training activities;

(2) It provides periodic feedback to both the supervising teacher and the trainee for continuous control and refinement of the designed plans and procedures;

(3) It measures and interprets the trainee's attained performance level, not only at the end of the training phase, but as often as necessary during the training cycle;

(4) It identifies a series of specific competencies unique to teachers working with Mexican-American children;

(5) It provides for a series of profiles that assess a trainee's strengths and weaknesses in each competency category.

Scoring Procedures

Introduction

The ICAS consists of a series of rating determinants (curricular activities, classroom environment, and teacher behaviors) and a rating scale. It is divided into nine categories of competencies or nine subtests. Six of the nine areas reflect the Child Development Associate Consortium's conceptual framework or six competency categories; the remaining three reflect competencies unique to Mexican-American pre-school children.

Two profiles are provided. Profile #3(1), the Competency Assessment Profile, refers to the six competency categories. Data for this profile is compiled from the Integrated Competency Assessment Scale (ICAS) and the Q-Sort self-assessment instrument. The second profile #4(2), the Bilingual Competency Assessment Profile, refers to the three competency areas unique to teachers working with the bilingual child. Data compilation for this profile is also obtained from the ICAS and the Q-Sort supplement--Bilingual competencies.

The Competency Sheets include the competencies for each category. The assessor should determine attainment of a specific competency(s) over time at intervals, i.e., during specific periods of training. The supervising teacher or assessor therefore can

note not only the candidate's attainment of a competency, but his progress toward optimal attainment. Utilizing the rating determinants (curricular activities, classroom environment, etc.) as determining variables a rating index is documented. This procedure is one attempt at decision-making about professional competence and demands for (1) a more in-depth analysis of teacher behaviors and/or competency attainment, (2) continuous communication between the trainee and the supervising teacher assuring a more humane and productive assessment process; and (3) the establishment of more useful and fruitful relationships that can significantly formulate the positive modification of teaching patterns, and teacher behaviors to produce desired results.

Scoring the Instrument

(1) Rate the trainee on each competency and on the Scoring Sheets (#'s 1a, 2b, and 3c) of the Integrated Competency Assessment Scale record the quantitative rating on the space provided under the R (rating) heading.

(2) Compute a subtest average rating for each competency category by dividing the total number of competencies assessed (TCA) by the total rating (TR).

$$^{1}\text{SAR} = \frac{\text{STR}}{\text{STC-STCA}}$$

(3) An overall rating for all competency categories is computed by summing the total competencies assessed (TCA) from

from each subtest and dividing by the total rating (TR).

$$^{2}OAR = \frac{OTR_1+OTR_2+OTR_3+OTR_4+OTR_5+OTR_6}{OTC-OTCA}$$

(4) Results from each subtest and the composite score are then plotted on the appropriate profiles.

(5) Competencies that are rated under the zero (0) category--Unable to Evaluate--do not figure in the scoring. However, documented evidence is necessary on each competency that receives a (0) zero rating in order to identify reasons for not evaluating the specific competency.

(6) Profiles should aid both the supervising teacher and teacher in training in diagnosing strengths and weaknesses by competency area.

This process of assessment attempts to identify and monitor on a continuous basis the attained competency level of each trainee and to detect or predict, during the training phase, strengths and weaknesses in the training plan, in the teacher's instructional patterns and/or behaviors that might need modification.

^{1}SAR = subtest averate rating
STR = subtest total rating
STC = subtest total competencies

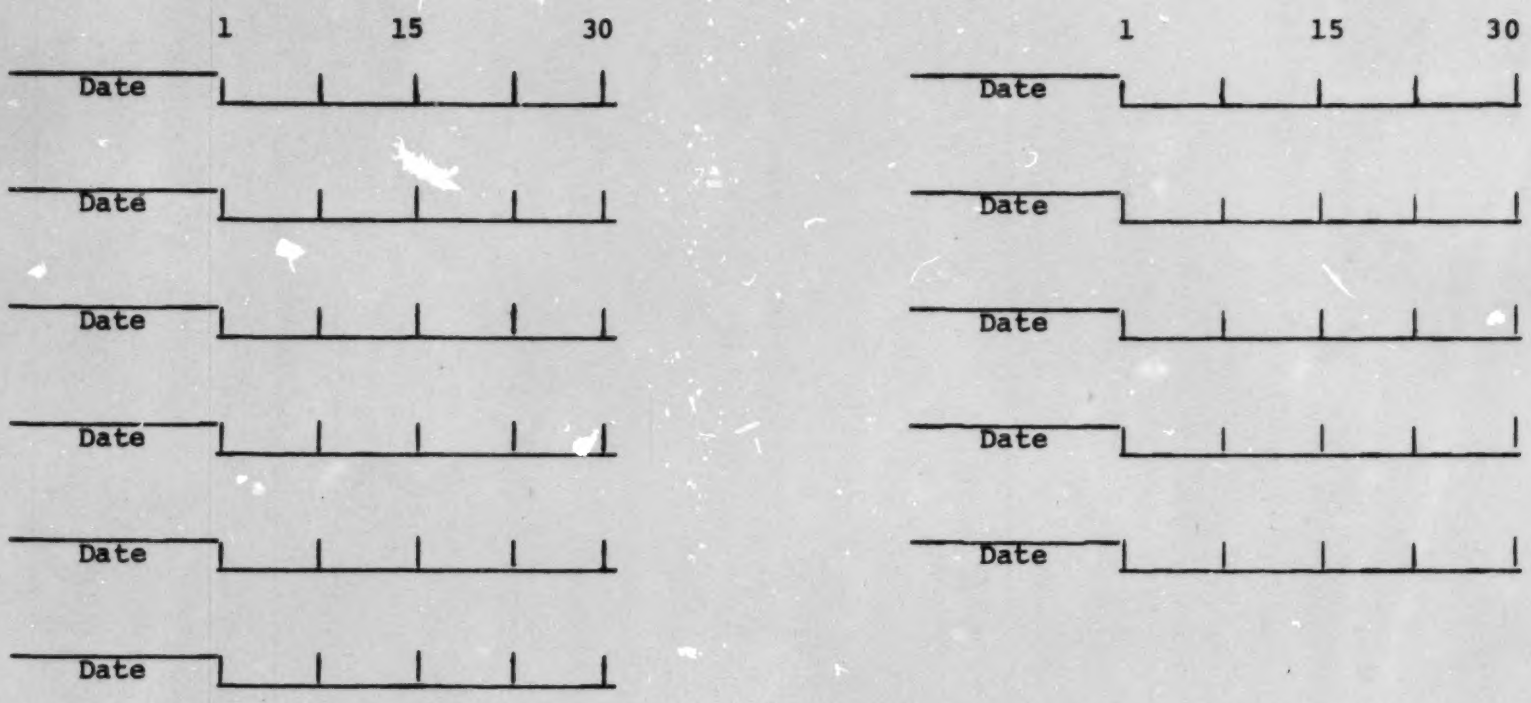
^{2}OAR = overall average rating
OTR = overall total rating
OTC = overall total competencies
OTCA = overall total competencies assessed

INTEGRATED COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT SCALE

TRAINEE _____ SUPERVISING TEACHER _____

CENTER _____

ASSESSMENT TIME PERIOD



RATING SCALE

Key:

4 = Always
3 = Frequently
2 = Occassionally
1 = Seldom
0 = Unable to Evaluate

Scoring Sheets

Competencies by Category — Competency Code and Attained Rating

I. Physical Environment

*C	*R	C	R
1.0		1.5	
1.1		1.6	
1.2		1.7	
1.3		1.8	
1.4		1.9	

(a) *TCA _____
(b) *TR _____
(c) *AR (TCA ÷ TR) _____

II. Physical and Intellectual Competence

C	R	C	R	C	R	C	R
2.0		5.1		5.11		5.21	
2.1		5.2		5.12		5.22	
2.2		5.3		5.13		5.23	
3.0		5.4		5.13		5.24	
3.1		5.5		5.15		5.25	
3.2		5.6		5.16		5.26	
4.0		5.7		5.17		5.27	
4.1		5.8		5.18		5.28	
4.2		5.9		5.19		5.29	
5.0		5.10		5.20			

(d) TCA _____
(e) TR _____
(f) AR (TCA ÷ TR) _____

COMPETENCIES BY CATEGORY — Competency Code and Attained Rating

III. Building the Positive Self-Concept

C	R	C	R	C	R
6.0		6.6		6.12	
6.1		6.7		6.13	
6.2		6.8		6.14	
6.3		6.9			
6.4		6.10			
6.5		6.11			

(g) TCA _____

(h) TR _____

(i) AR(TCA÷TR) _____

IV. Sustaining the Positive Functioning of Children and Adults in a Group

7.0		7.6		7.12	
7.1		7.7		7.13	
7.2		7.8		7.14	
7.3		7.9			
7.4		7.10			
7.5		7.11			

(j) TCA _____

(k) TR _____

(l) AR (TCA÷TR) _____

COMPETENCIES by Category — Competency Code and Attained rating

V. Bring about Coordination of Home and Center

C	R	C	R
8.0		8.6	
8.1		8.7	
8.2		8.8	
8.3		8.9	
8.5			

(m) TCA_____

(n) TR _____

(o) AR (TCA ÷ TR)_____

VI. Carry out Supplementary Responsibilities Related to the Children's Programs

C	R
9.0	
9.1	
9.2	
9.3	
9.4	
9.5	

(p) TCA_____

(q) TR_____

(r) AR (TCA ÷ TR)

* Competency ---------C
* Rating----------R
* Total Competencies Assessed-------TCA
* Total Rating ----------TR
* Average Rating---------AR

COMPOSITE RATING

TCA (a+d+g+j+m+p) _____

TR (b+e+h+k+n+q) _____

AR (TCA ÷ TR)_____

INTEGRATED COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT SCALE

CDA TRAINEE PROFILE

COMPETENCY CATEGORIES	Highest Possible Score	Subtest Mean	SubTest Profile 0 1 2 3 4
I. Physical Environment	40		
II. Physical and Intellectual Competence	156		
III. Building the Positive Self-Concept	60		
IV. Sustaining the Positive functioning of Children and Adults in a Group	60		
V. Bring about Coordination of Home and Center	36		
VI. Carry out Supplementary responsibilities related to the Children's program	24		
Composite Mean(AR)			

Form # 2a.

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
I. Physical Environment		1.0, 1.1, 1.2		
1.0 Classroom arrangement reflects specific learning areas	0 1 2 3 4			
1.1 Provides area for self directed (independent activities) quiet areas, etc.	0 1 2 3 4			
1.2 Classroom arrangement reflects unique needs of children	0 1 2 3 4			
1.3 Varied and manipulative materials are provided for children to utilize	0 1 2 3 4	1.3, 1.4, 1.5		
1.4 Materials reflect children's ability level and cultural characteristics	0 1 2 3 4			
1.5 Provides a location for children to place their personal belongings, clothing, etc.	0 1 2 3 4			
1.6 Provides adequate supervision during recreational activities and at nap time	0 1 2 3 4	1.6		
1.7 Displays samples of children's work and developed materials	0 1 2 3 4	1.7, 1.8, 1.9		
1.8 Utilize the environment to stimulate discussion about trees, birds, etc., and creates meaningful outdoor play areas	0 1 2 3 4			
1.9 Develop materials (teacher made) not relying exclusively on commercial materials	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
II. Physical and Intellectual Competence		2.0, 2.1, 2.2		
A. Gross Motor Development				
2.0 Provides musical activities that stimulate dancing, jumping, marching, (large muscle movement)	0 1 2 3 4			
2.1 Provides recreational activities that stimulate running, throwing, jumping, marching, etc.	0 1 2 3 4			
2.2 Provides opportunities for childre- to elicit gross motoric tasks (walking board, bean bag throw)	0 1 2 3 4			
B. Fine Motor		3.0, 3.1		
3.0 Provides opportunities for children to develop skills in block building, button, cutting, using play dough, crayolas, etc.	0 1 2 3 4			
3.1 Provides for finger painting activities	0 1 2 3 4			
		3.2		
3.2 Provides games and/or activities that develop fine eye movement, fine muscle movement	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
C. Health Habits		4.0, 4.1, 4.2		
4.0 Provides children with opportunities to wash hands before and after meals	0 1 2 3 4			
4.1 Demonstrates good oral hygiene practices	0 1 2 3 4			
4.2 Discusses with children the importance of rest and recreation	0 1 2 3 4			
D. Interactional Behaviors		5.0, 5.1, 5.2, 5.3		
5.0 Provides and encourages interaction between children	0 1 2 3 4			
5.1 Allows for independent (self-directed activity when child does not wish to join the group	0 1 2 3 4			
5.2 Provides opportunities for small group instruction (teacher/child directed)	0 1 2 3 4			
5.3 Provides and encourages cooperation between children rather than competition	0 1 2 3 4			
5.4 Praises or reinforces the shy child when he/she is involved in an activity	0 1 2 3 4	5.4, 5.5		
5.5 Provides opportunity for the child to interact with a group without constraining him	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Rating Determinants: Classroom Environment	Rating Determinants: Teacher Behavior
5.6 Accepts the child's use of colloquial or vernacular language	0 1 2 3 4	5.6		
5.7 Provides opportunities for the child to interact or lead a group	0 1 2 3 4	5.7, 5.8		
5.8 Uses normal conversation with children (not yelling, using baby talk, etc.) tolerates noise	0 1 2 3 4			
*5.9 Provides for the dramatization of stories utilizing the child's own experiences	0 1 2 3 4	5.9, 5.10		
5.10 Gets down to childs' physical level when interacting (uses small chair, floor, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4			
5.11 Provides classroom labels, and story books unique to the child's experiences	0 1 2 3 4	5.11, 5.12		
5.12 Utilizes the child's vernacular to emphasize rhyming words, phonetic ending and expanding his language development	0 1 2 3 4			

*includes reading to children and eliciting responses

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
5.13 Provides for development of auditory discrimination by making available instruments and objects that make hard and soft sounds	0 1 2 3 4	5.13		
5.14 Provides for sensory awareness through touch, taste, smell and hearing utilizing the child's own experiences	0 1 2 3 4	5.14		
5.15 Provides for visual perception activities where child can perceive, discriminate, classify and integrate various objects (size, shape, weight, color)	0 1 2 3 4	5.15, 5.16, 5.17		
5.16 Provides visual lessons which require the child to: (a) match forms (b) find missing forms (c) distinguish between similarities and differences	0 1 2 3 4			
5.17 Uses pictures, films or other visual experiences to stimulate discussion and stories about which child's interested	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Rating Determinants: Classroom Environment	Rating Determinants: Teacher Behavior
5.18 Discusses or provides activities that deal with origin and causality of events	0 1 2 3 4	5.18		
5.19 Provides activities where children can categorize and match properties of objects	0 1 2 3 4	5.19, 5.20		
5.20 Provides activities where child can sequence familiar events (record events in sequential order)	0 1 2 3 4			
5.21 Provides manipulative materials for children to construct two and three dimensional objects	0 1 2 3 4	5.21		
5.22 Uses words, events, the calendar to develop concepts of time and succession of recurring seasons	0 1 2 3 4	5.22, 5.23		
5.23 Integrates in the activities the utilization of concepts such as more, less, fewer, heavy, light, etc., and encourages the child to use them appropriately.	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
5.24 Provides activities for the development of formal math concepts:		5.24		
(a) Numbers and operations (uses a number line)	0 1 2 3 4	(a)		
(b) Geometry (shapes used and angles pointed out)	0 1 2 3 4	(b)		
(c) Measurement (assigning number values or using rulers for measure)	0 1 2 3 4	(c)		
(d) Application (applying math daily, counting days, size, and color relationships, measure temperature)	0 1 2 3 4	(d)		
(e) Probability (heights and weights, plant growth, plots progress)	0 1 2 3 4	(e)		
(f) Sets (uses flannel figures)	0 1 2 3 4	(f)		
(g) Deductive Reasoning (problems of "what if" or "and if then")	0 1 2 3 4	(g)		
(h) Problem Solving (analyzing and solving problems)	0 1 2 3 4	(h)		
5.25 Provides opportunities for children to mix primary colors and discover secondary colors for themselves	0 1 2 3 4	5.25		
5.26 Provides for a science area which includes some of the following: magnets, thermometer, compass, scales, prism, terrarium, aquarium, insect container, globe, magnifying glass, books, and pictures	0 1 2 3 4	5.26		

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
5.27 Provides activities that stimulate exploration of the man-made environment (origin or automobiles, planes, plastics, tablcs, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4	5.27, 5.28		
5.28 Provides activities that stimulate exploration of the natural environment (insects, trees, earth, plant growth and decay)	0 1 2 3 4			
5.29 Leads the child through decision-making and problem-solving processes and responds to the child's curiosity and questioning	0 1 2 3 4	5.29		
III. Building the Positive Self-Concept		6.0, 6.1, 6.2, 6.3		
6.0 Accepts and responds to the child's curiosity and questioning by helping him pursue answers to problems. Does not label answers as wrong.	0 1 2 3 4			
6.1 Accepts the child's utilization of his vernacular, accepting his unique experiences (appreciates the child's life style and cultural differences)	0 1 2 3 4			
6.2 Provides for the daily creative expression of the child through various media: art, music, drama	0 1 2 3 4			
6.3 Asks but does not compel the child to verbalize his creative representations and praise him for his product	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
6.4 Displays each child's creative work and praises his work of art and process used	0 1 2 3 4	6.4		
6.5 Provides activities for role-playing family members and family situations	0 1 2 3 4	6.5		
6.6 Provides the child with success experiences, avoiding failure	0 1 2 3 4	6.6		
6.7 Does not verbally judge one child by another	0 1 2 3 4	6.7		
6.8 Uses physical contact to communicate warmth (contingent reinforcement)	0 1 2 3 4	6.8, 6.9, 6.10		
6.9 Smiles, nods approval to demonstrate friendliness and accepts (noncontingent reinforcement)	0 1 2 3 4			
6.10 Gives full attention to child when he is speaking	0 1 2 3 4			
6.11 Provides for a quiet place or supports the upset child	0 1 2 3 4	6.11, 6.12		
6.12 Provides constructive outlets for the child to release his inhibitions (painting, imagining, verbalizing, dancing, etc.)	0 1 2 3 4			
6.13 Assures an interrupting child of his chance to talk	0 1 2 3 4	6.13		
6.14 Will arrange for field trips relevant to the child's culture or life style	0 1 2 3 4	6.14		

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
IV. Sustaining the Positive Functioning of Children and Adults in a Group		7.0, 7.1, 7.2, 7.3, 7.4, 7.5		
7.0 Assists children in interpreting and handling individual experiences	0 1 2 3 4			
7.1 Verbalizes emotional reactions for the child who cannot	0 1 2 3 4			
7.2 Provides for discussion of individual problem solving with the child (or groups)	0 1 2 3 4			
7.3 Provides for activities that serve as emotional outlets	0 1 2 3 4			
7.4 Helps children become aware of feelings they are experiencing	0 1 2 3 4			
7.5 Listens to the frustrated child who verbalizes his problems	0 1 2 3 4			
7.6 Provides activities that support cooperation and sharing between individual children and groups	0 1 2 3 4	7.6		
7.7 Models acceptable language, speaking clearly and distinctly to children in the group	0 1 2 3 4	7.7		
7.8 Ignores disruptive behavior when it is not damaging to the child or others	0 1 2 3 4	7.8, 7.9		
7.9 Handles accidents calmly and discretely without embarrassing the child	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
7.10 Sets realistic standards which are understood by children and other helpers, and are easy for them to follow	0 1 2 3 4	7.10, 7.11		
7.11 Positive rules are explained and practiced (two-hands for climbing, walking inside)	0 1 2 3 4			
7.12 Shows by example and verbal direction that one person talks at a time before the group	0 1 2 3 4	7.12, 7.13, 7.14		
7.13 Children are provided with activities that respond to cooperative tasks and require sharing and help from each other	0 1 2 3 4			
7.14 Changes activities if group or child becomes restless	0 1 2 3 4			
V. Bring about Coordination of Home and Center		8.0.....8.9		
8.0 Communicates with parents in the language of their choice	0 1 2 3 4			
8.1 Utilizes parents as resource personnel providing for the demonstration of their talents	0 1 2 3 4			
8.2 Asks parents for volunteer assistance in the classroom	0 1 2 3 4			
8.3 Acquaints parents with the instructional program, school policies, health services	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Curricular Activity(s)	Rating Determinants: Classroom Environment	Rating Determinants: Teacher Behavior
		8.0.....8.9 (Continued)		
8.4 Arranges for parent conferences to discuss progress and positive reinforcement techniques	0 1 2 3 4			
8.5 Visits the home of the child at least a year	0 1 2 3 4			
8.6 Welcome the parents at the Center (school) and provides a comfortable atmosphere for them	0 1 2 3 4			
8.7 Involves parental assistance with extra curricular activities	0 1 3 4 5			
8.8 Utilizes ideas and praises the contributions parents make for extra curricular activities	0 1 2 3 4			
8.9 Trains volunteer parents to assist in teaching	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
VI. Carry Out Supplementary Responsibilities Related to the Children's Programs		9.0.....9.5		
9.0 Shares all aspects of classroom work with colleagues	0 1 2 3 4			
9.1 Shares ideas, insights and resources with colleagues	0 1 2 3 4			
9.2 Is open to new ideas and suggestions for delivery of instructional and noninstructional services in early childhood	0 1 2 3 4			
9.3 Engages with staff in cooperative planning	0 1 2 3 4			
9.4 Is aware of management functions such as ordering of supplies and equipment	0 1 2 3 4			
9.5 Makes observations on the growth and development of individual children	0 1 2 3 4			

B. Observational Comments

1. Classroom Environment

Feedback:

2. Teacher Behavior

Feedback:

3. Interactional Behaviors

Feedback:

III. Building the Positive Self Concept

Generalized Activities

Specific Activity

IV. Sustaining the Positive Functioning of Children and Adults in a Group

Generalized Activities

Specific Activity

V. Bring About Coordination of Home and Center

Generalized Activities

VI. Carry Out Supplementary Responsibilities Related to the Children's Program

Generalized Activities

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS

1. Lay out the color coded scoring cards in front of you. You should have five (5) separate cards labeled:

   4. (ALWAYS)

   3. (FREQUENTLY)

   2. (OCCASSIONALLY)

   1. (SELDOM)

   0. (UNABLE TO EVALUATE)

2. Rate yourself on each competency according to the extent to which you perform the specific competency and place each card on the appropriate scoring card. Follow this sequence for all the cards until you have rated yourself on every competency.

3. Pick up each stack of cards and on the score sheet labeled "Q-sort 1" tally, each competency category on the approiate score sheet cell. NOTE: on the lower right hand corner of each card there is a roman numeral. This numeral corresponds to each of the competency categories on the score sheet. You are to place a tally mark on the appropriate cell according to your rating of that competency. Add the tally marks and multiply the total by the rating of (4XT, 3XT, etc.) and enter the product in the small box provided in each cell.

4. Add vertically the four (4) cells for each competency category to obtain a total rating and enter each sum in the space provided.

5. Compute the average rating for each competency area by dividing the total competencies assessed by the total rating. Plot the average rating (subtest mean) on the Score sheet: Trainee Profile, labeled "Q-sort 2", for each competency area.

6. Compute a composite rating and plot this on the Trainee Profile.

SCORE SHEET: SELF ASSESSMENT

Q-SORT 1

TRAINEE _____ CENTER _____ DATE _____

RATING SCALE	COMPETENCY CATEGORIES					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
(a) ALWAYS : 4 (4 x T) =						
(b) FREQUENTLY : 3 (3 x T) =						
(c) OCCASSIONALLY : 2 (2 x T) =						
(d) SELDOM : 1 (1 x T) =						
(e) UNABLE TO EVALUATE : 0						
(f) Total Competencies Assessed (a+b+c+d-e)	1a	1b	1c	1d	1e	1f
(g) Total Rating	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f
(h) Average Rating (f÷g)						

COMPOSITE RATING

(i) Total Competencies Assessed (1a+1b+1c+1d+1e+1f)_____

(j) Total Rating (2a+2b+2c+2d+2e+2f)_____

(k) Composite Mean (i÷j)_____

INTEGRATED COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT SCALE

CDA TRAINEE PROFILE

COMPETENCY CATEGORIES	Highest Possible Score	Subtest Mean	SubTest Profile 0 1 2 3 4
I. Physical Environment	40		
II. Physical and Intellectual Competence	156		
III. Building the Positive Self-Concept	60		
IV. Sustaining the Positive functioning of Children and Adults in a Group	60		
V. Bring about Coordination of Home and Center	36		
VI. Carry out Supplementary responsibilities related to the Children's program	24		
Composite Mean(AR)			

Form # 2a.

SUPPLEMENT

BILINGUAL COMPETENCIES

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants: Curricular Activity(s)	Rating Determinants: Classroom Environment	Rating Determinants: Teacher Behavior
Bilingual Competencies				
1. Demonstrate fluency in English/ Spanish and the child's barrio colloquialisms (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
2. Accept the child's use of colloquial or vernacular language (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
3. Communicate with the child in the language of his choice and lead him to the acceptance of a second language (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
4. Reinforce the child's verbalizations of experiences (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
5. Listen to the child's verbalizations of experiences (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
6. Show appreciation for the child's verbalizations of experiences (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
7. Positively reinforce the child for his achievements (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
8. Provide the shy child with individual interaction (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
9. Praise and reinforce the shy child when he is involved in an activity (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
10. Provide opportunities for the shy child to interact with a group without constraining him (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
*Sample Curricular Activity				

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
11. Praise the child for his individual accomplishments (SCA*)	0 1 2 3 4			
12. Identify and expand basic concepts in Spanish first, then in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
13. Identify objects new to the child in the child's first language, then later in a second language (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
14. Present unfamiliar concepts to the child in Spanish first, then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
15. Provides classroom labels, story books in Spanish first, then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
16. Read/tell stories in Spanish first then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
17. Provide for the dramatization of stories in the child's own language (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
18. Utilize barrio vernacular to emphasize rhyming words/phonetic endings (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
19. Accept the child's rhymes from the barrio and expand their use for auditory discrimination (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
20. Give directions for activities in Spanish first then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
21. Teach the child body concepts in Spanish first, then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
22. Label parts of the body in Spanish first then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
23. Provide activities for evaluating the child's own body concepts (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
24. Individualize instructions for the child who needs to acquire a more adequate body concept (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
25. Provide sensori-motor activities for the child's utilization of body parts (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
26. Teach the child self-concepts in Spanish first, then later in English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
27. Provide opportunities for the child to talk about his experiences/role in the home (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
28. Praise and reinforce the child's contributions to the family's home activities (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
29. Provide activities for role-playing family members and family situations (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
30. Explore the different roles of people in the barrio (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
31. Utilize people from the barrio as school speakers (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
32. Arrange for field trips relevant to the child's culture (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
33. Serve foods representative of the child's culture and expose the child to other foods and cultures (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
34. Provide for the daily creative expression of the child through art, music or drama (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
35. Ask the child to verbalize his creative representations (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
36. Teach the child folk dancing, songs and games in Spanish (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
37. Accept and utilize the dances, songs and games from the barrios (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
38. Display each child's creative work and praise the work of art or process used (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
39. Communicate with parents in the language of their choice (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
40. Utilize parents as resource personnel providing for the demonstration of their talents (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
41. Ask parents for volunteer assistance in the classroom (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
42. Acquaint parents with the instructional program, school policies, health services (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			

COMPETENCIES	Rating Scale	Rating Determinants		
		Curricular Activity(s)	Classroom Environment	Teacher Behavior
43. Arrange for parent conferences to discuss scholastic progress and positive reinforcement techniques (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
44. Personally thank the parents for any assistance they provide (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
45. Visit the home of the child at least twice a year (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
46. Welcome the parents at school and provide a comfortable atmosphere for them (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
47. Write all parental notices in both Spanish and English (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
48. Involve parental assistance with extracurricular activities (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
49. Utilize ideas and praise the contributions the parents make for extracurricular activities (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
50. Acquaint parents with alternative means of eliminating negative behaviors through use of positive reinforcement (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			
51. Train volunteer parents to assist in teaching (SCA)	0 1 2 3 4			

SCORING SHEET (continued)

OVERALL SUMMARY COMMENTS

A. Curricular (Training) Activities

I. Verbal and Interactional Behaviors

Generalized Activities

Specific Activity

II. Fostering Self-Concept

Generalized Activities

Specific Activity

III. Fostering Parental Involvment

Generalized Activities

Specific Activity

Competencies Unique To Spanish-Speaking Mexican-American Children

Supplement: ICAS

BILINGUAL COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT PROFILE

NAME _____ CENTER _____ DATE _____

Competency Categories	Trainee Profile: Highest Possible Score	Trainee Profile: Subtest Mean	Subtest Profile: 0 1 2 3 4
I. Verbal and Interactional Behaviors	_____	_____	
II. Building a Positive Self-Concept	_____	_____	
III. Bring About Coordination of Home and Center	_____	_____	
Composite Mean		_____	

Key: Supervising Teacher Assessment ━━━━━━ (Compiled from Integrated Competency Assessment Scale, Workshops, and Observation).

Trainee Self-Assessment - - - - - - - - (Compiled from Trainee Self-Assessment Q-Sort)

#4 (2)

APPENDIX E

PROJECT PERSONNEL

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Publication Number: 2.0275-1
Project funded under Grant No. H7928 C/H/O from the Office of Child Development, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare